

SOCIAL EDUCATION

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ACROSS THE AGES

By LOUISE I. CAPEN

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891 pages

Illustrated

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IN this book the fog of the past is lifted. Dim, historical facts are illuminated and the main threads of human effort are traced down to the present. Boys and girls are made to look back and visualize events and personages in modern terms. In this way they are helped to understand the great factors which have contributed to the growth of culture and civilization.

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Editor's Page

A TEACHER REPLIES TO GEORGE SOKOLSKY

I AM an average school teacher, just one of forty thousand teachers in the public school system of New York City. Like my colleagues, I welcome constructive criticism. As believers in democracy we strive toward the common goal of building the finest possible system of public education for the United States. Surely in this aim we have the support of every parent. Therefore, I can not express the dismay which overwhelmed me when I read George Sokolsky's article in *Liberty* (December 30, 1939) entitled "Propaganda in Our Schoolbooks." In my opinion this title is a misnomer. A more fitting title would have read "Let's End Free Public Education in the United States."

Let us observe the Sokolsky technique in operation. First he attempts to frighten American parents with a barrage of rhetorical questions. For example: "Does the parent discover whether his child is being brought up in the traditions of America or in the propaganda of Soviet Russia?" "How many parents go to school to 'look over' the teachers of their children, to discover whether their sympathies are with the American way of life or with the Russian or German way?" "Does the parent inquire into that vague mystery, sex education?"

To buttress these questions he gives isolated examples, in an attempt to show the dangers of our public school system. He tells the story of a boy who called his father a "dope" for having fought in the World War. "Didn't you know," the boy asked his father, "that the World War was fought for

the bankers?" This question horrifies Mr Sokolsky. Can it be that he honestly disagrees with all contemporary historians to the extent of believing that the World War was fought for purely altruistic reasons? My daily contact with children has taught me that few youngsters would call their parents "dopes," for any reason. Is not the very expression rather an indictment of the home than of the school? Mr Sokolsky asks of other parents: "Have you discovered whether they [your children] think that you are a dope?" How insulting!

He is alarmed still further by the dearth of military history taught in today's schools. It shocks him that pupils know more about Hitler, Stalin, and Mussolini, than they do about Zachary Taylor and Winfield Scott. At one time, it is true, military history was taught to the exclusion of political, social, and economic history. As time went on educators became convinced that knowing the name of a battle did little toward promoting effective citizenship. Furthermore, it isn't entirely honest to say that the schools ignore the contributions of Winfield Scott and Zachary Taylor. Both receive due consideration. However, the schools, like the radio, the newspapers, the movies, and the periodicals, naturally must pay attention to those personalities and problems that challenge our very existence today.

THE third step in the Sokolsky process of muddling the thinking of our readers is to quote isolated passages from certain books. For example, he quotes Carl Becker's definition of Marxian socialism, implying

that Mr Becker's purpose is to make communists of our children. How absurd! Does explanation denote indoctrination? How can we expect our pupils to appreciate our own system of government, unless they study about such other forms as fascism and communism?

"There is no Santa Claus," says *Scholastic*, a magazine for high school pupils. Mr Sokolsky is indignant! "Who would deprive a child of such symbols?" he asks. Again I find it difficult to believe that he is in earnest. Try discussing the subject of Santa Claus with boys between the ages of fourteen and nineteen. My pupils would roar with laughter.

He denounces another magazine, *Building America*, because it objects to discrimination in the deportation of aliens. In the opinion of the magazine "these laws have been used to punish labor leaders and liberals, but not the leaders of vigilante groups, such as the Ku Klux Klan." Mr Sokolsky implies that the magazine is trying to excuse communism on the basis of the wrongs committed by the Ku Klux Klan. Isn't it just as logical to suppose that he is trying to use the national antagonism toward communism, shared by teachers, as an excuse to condone the evils of the Klan? We know that he is not, but such a line of reasoning might easily lead us to such conclusions.

"Propaganda in Our Schoolbooks"—is this really the subject of Mr Sokolsky's article? If so, why does he so diverge from his topic as to quote Dr J. L. Tildsley to the effect that the public high schools are teaching "that active exertion of any kind is something to be shunned."

Finally, if Mr Sokolsky is not quite sure that "'the largest group of wealthy men the world has ever seen ruled over American affairs' can be substantiated historically," I should like to refer him to any authoritative book in the field, let us say: Miriam Beard's *History of the Business Man* or Gustavus Myers' *Story of the Great American Fortunes*. Is it not the function

of the teacher in a democracy to teach the truth?

Parents, what do you wish for your children? A wholesome intelligent attitude toward the contemporary problems of American democracy? Or do you prefer the Sokolsky way?

Teachers, shall we not recognize that charges such as these are grave indeed, so grave that we must find a way of reaching those readers who are innocent victims of such techniques?

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ON DEMOCRACY IN OUR SCHOOLS

BUSINESS meetings of large organizations are often characterized by the undemocratic procedure of "railroading" motions and nominations through after inadequate discussion and by too often refusing to invite other nominations than those recommended by a committee. A president or chairman of any such group knows that, to conduct his meeting quickly and efficiently, he can do much better to run the program himself and complete the task, permitting very little discussion from the floor. This practice has been followed by many. The evil of the committee system, whereby proposals are brought to a vote out of committee without a call for suggestions from the floor, has probably been experienced at some time by all. The result is always that most of the members feel that there is a small group that runs the business—that they have not been given the privilege of helping decide policies at all. And they have not been consulted. The small clique has planned the program so that everything runs smoothly and their ideas are carried out.

This method is contrasted with the slower procedure of allowing adequate discussion from the group as a whole. In many cases time seems to be lost—but is it? The exchange of ideas finally brings out many expressions of opinion, and those ideas fre-

quently lead to a solution of the problem or the suggestion of a wiser plan.

SIMILARLY, our system of democratic government has been criticized because it is so slow. In our national legislature a proposed bill must first go to a committee in either the House of Representatives or the Senate before being presented for debate. If it emerges from the committee of the House, many corrections may be made before it is passed and sent on to the Senate. Here much time may be used in making changes and in debating the bill. If changes have been made, the bill must be back to the House again. When approved, it goes to the President to be signed. There may be more delay here, of course, before it actually becomes a law. In some other countries, when a law is needed, this cumbersome process is unnecessary. The law may go into effect the same day that it originates in the mind of the dictator. Some of our people in the United States are being fooled by what seems to them greater efficiency in these dictatorships. They feel that we waste too much time.

Those citizens who understand the situation more clearly are willing to forego some of this efficiency rather than accept dictatorial rule which is sometimes necessary to gain such efficiency. We feel that it is better to know that we can make changes in our system when conditions become too bad than to be regimented into perfection and lose our liberty to speak against conditions that we feel are wrong. We must not excuse ourselves for any existing evils because of necessary slowness but must work for needed changes and not be too discouraged that they do not come immediately.

WITH these analogies as a background, we might look at our school system to see if we, as teachers or administrators, are taking necessary time to allow pupils to decide a large number of their own group problems. We also need to find whether school children are allowed to ex-

press themselves freely in their school paper, in classrooms, or in assembly meetings. Do we allow freedom of petition for redress of grievances? Do pupils control their clubs and school organizations? Are they encouraged to take initiative and to assume responsibility? Are they allowed to express their views on the school program?

Every community or school system will have to answer these questions for itself, but it is fairly safe to assume that in the majority of places children are not allowed these liberties. Answers to these questions will indicate that children can not arrive at sound judgments—that a school based upon such principles would soon become a whirlpool of conflicts—a wealth of liberties without responsibilities.

To clear away some doubts, let us first assume that such a system would not be feasible for children in the first five or six grades; that during this time they must be taught to obey constituted authority. At the age of twelve or thirteen, then, children may be guided by the teacher into an intelligent understanding of problems that they themselves attempt to solve. The teacher can not even then expect decisions to be wise—much altering of plans must take place following suggestions from the teacher, because even though children at this age can reason well, they do not have an adequate background of experiences upon which to build judgments always sound.

The operation of such a democratic plan must necessarily be quite close to what we know already as plans for more pupil activity. Let the pupils do it—the teacher is the guide. By using such a plan, the teacher can get the viewpoint of the pupil—something that he does not closely approximate when presenting his subject logically. At the same time, the child is getting valuable training in acceding to the wishes of others. He does not need much training in the art of wanting things his own way. Thus, while this activity plan is not new, it is well to consider it in tying up with a more democratic spirit in our schools.

IN our schools we find superintendents applying pressure to principals, and principals applying pressure to teachers to get a specified amount of material taught in certain limited periods of time. Then teachers must apply pressure to pupils. Minimum requirements of state and county must be met—high schools are forced by university entrance requirements to teach more subjects, and they in turn force grade schools into an overcrowded program. This mass of material to be taught scarcely leaves time for the teacher to carry on a democratic procedure. He can only insist that work must be done thoroughly without too many questions being asked. The product turned out in too many cases is an individualistic person; he may know how he wants to make his living but he probably does not know how to give and take as a member of a group and be satisfied to be on the losing side and like it.

Another factor that we must consider that hinders democracy in our schools is the administrator himself, considered apart from his obligation to live up to curriculum standards set for him from above. If the superintendent or principal in charge likes to dictate all policies, never allowing his co-workers on the teaching staff to help him decide, teachers in the system are apt to follow his example and show very little concern for maintaining democracy in their classrooms. All of us can think of examples

of the one type and the other type of administrator.

HOW can a superintendent set a fine example and make his teachers feel that they have a vital role in the operation of the school? First, he can present as many matters of policy as possible to the teachers for their consideration. Second, he can let teachers form committees to work out many of the programs and schedules to be followed in the system. Third, he can accept as many of these proposals which have been made as possible after the group as a whole has approved. It is only natural that, as head of the school and responsible to the board and to the people, he must accept no recommendations that he can not defend if challenged by his superiors. In this way, since teachers feel that they are a real part of the organization, they can be expected to use similar tactics with their classes.

Clearly, if schools are to improve their direct training of children for life in a democracy, they must allow freedom of expression in school by pupils, they must require fewer subjects, and let the child work along lines best adapted to his personality or capabilities. Superintendents in turn, must work with their subordinates on a democratic basis so that this spirit may be carried on to the children.

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Can Democracy Be Efficient?

CHARLES P. SCHLEICHER

DEMOCRATIC governments are proverbially inefficient; authoritarian governments are reputed to get things done. Actually, of course, efficiency is necessary for the preservation of any government, but those very instrumentalities and processes necessary for the maintenance of a democracy also threaten it with destruction. So at least some contend, and with all their detestation of dictatorship, many Americans grudgingly agree.

But what answers does an examination of the "efficiency" of modern dictatorship yield? Has dictatorship in Germany been efficient for the Jews? For the workers? Has it succeeded in raising the general income for the great mass of the people in either Germany or Italy? To the last the rulers themselves answer no. It has, of course, restored Germany to the position of a great power, in the military sense of the word, and has endowed Italy with nuisance value.

To liberals much of this gain must be counted as loss. The cost of attempting to turn men into automatons, taking their cues to thought and action from a self-constituted elite, is entirely too great. Dictatorships have not "solved" problems. They have rather

attempted to stamp out opposition and divert the masses by stirring up a kind of tribal mysticism.

Democracies may often be inefficient in terms of making decisions rapidly, but in terms of human welfare they compare very favorably with dictatorships. There is a real danger, however, that people in democracies, growing impatient with our inefficiencies, will attempt an illusory solution—one which will sacrifice democracy and yet fail to gain "efficiency."

POLITICAL democracy, in terms of an extensive suffrage, is less than a hundred years old. Its growth coincided with the flowering of modern capitalism. The franchise is seldom desired for its own sake, but for the alleviation of real or fancied evils, and the attainment of positive benefits. This truth is not lessened by the naive belief that the latter will follow automatically in the wake of the former.

Nowhere is this better expressed than in the writings of the English Chartists. After the granting of universal suffrage, poverty would disappear in six months! Universal suffrage came, but poverty did not disappear. For a period the enfranchised masses hardly knew what to do with their newly won inheritance. The general increase in standards of living, uneven and uncertain to be sure, temporarily stayed the exercise of political power for economic ends. Gradually, however, in order to mobilize consent for governing, concessions were made in the form of social legislation, though it should be noted that this did not interfere seriously

The nature and values of democracy have been much to the fore in our recent thinking and educational planning. This analysis of values and strength is contributed by an instructor in political science and history at the University of Utah.

with the rights of business to do as it wished with its own.

Spasmodically and hesitantly the functions of government have increased. This is plainly exemplified by the Interstate Commerce and Sherman Anti-Trust Acts in the United States. The organization of the masses into political parties continued; education advanced; the myth of equal opportunity persisted; the dream of potential plenty flourished. While the classical theory of subsistence wages, carried to its logical conclusion by Marx, seemed generally to have been invalidated, there nevertheless persisted a wide discontent with the general distribution of the products of the economic machine. When, in times of economic depression, and especially during the last ten years, this economic machine failed to function, the whole system began to be seriously questioned, and nowhere more seriously than in the ranks of those who owned and controlled the great proportion of the capital goods. In the United States at least, they were among the first to turn to government for salvation.

Whatever may have been true in the past, government today is judged, in considerable part, by the efficiency with which it is able to effect a coordination of the economic forces of production. The days when a President could say, as did Cleveland, that government is government, and business is business, have long since passed. Government functions in connection with, and as an interrelated part of, an economic system. Even if we were to attempt the economic and politically impossible, to break up obstacles to a competitive economy, government would have to assume obligations in quantity, if not in quality, at least commensurate with those exercised today.

FREEDOM VERSUS SOCIAL CONTROL

THROUGHOUT the whole history of society there persists the problem of individual freedom versus social control. Government has always been, and is becoming an ever more important, means of control.

In any complicated and interrelated society the individual finds himself restricted. Regimentation is the inevitable price which must be paid for that kind of a society. A realization of this truth, and a willingness to make the necessary conformities with a minimum of physical coercion, is the *sine qua non* of a highly developed democratic society.

Most of us, intellectually at least, recognize this truth. We contend, moreover, that more real freedom and more real individuality are possible in our technological age than in a simple society where less regimentation is necessary. To deny power to a government, acting under the influence of a wide and relatively free electorate, to effect this necessary regimentation—or coordination, if you prefer—means at best either anarchy or, far more probably, the lodging of power in the hands of vast and relatively irresponsible economic organizations. During the past ten years we have not been creating instrumentalities of power so much as we have been transferring this power to more democratic agencies.

Power is the crux of the question in modern government. President Roosevelt's famous statement of a few years ago about building up instrumentalities of power in Washington which, in the hands of the enemies of freedom, could be used to destroy liberty, was very significant. Yet if we deny the power to do evil we automatically deny power to do good.

In a democratic government it seems both just and expedient that the majority should have the final say as to rules of action. There is no right against the will of the majority, however equally just and expedient it may be for the majority to allow the minority the freest privilege of criticism. The freedom allowed a minority is the best guarantee that it will confine its activities to peaceful attempts to gain control of government.

The liberty which democratic government must control or regulate is more often economic than civil. Civil liberties are to some extent ends in themselves, as well as

the necessary means for retaining democracy. The incidence of the limitation of economic "rights" generally falls on relatively small groups, in the interest of liberty for much larger groups.

POWER VERSUS DEMOCRACY

A PRACTICAL test can be applied to this question of power and efficiency. Let us examine the record. Has any modern, democratically elected government used its power to destroy liberty and establish a dictatorship? In any case, this was not what happened in Germany, Italy, or Russia. It is true that the fascists in Italy and Germany were elected to office, but they were able to achieve a majority only with the use of questionable election methods, and they achieved power in the legislatures only by threats and forcible ejection and exclusion. A strong and efficient government, truly democratic, would not have tolerated such action.

More important than these political issues were those which arose in the field of economics. Had the government successfully used power to make the necessary adjustments in the economic realm to satisfy the great mass of the people, the dictators would have sung their siren songs in vain. It should be remembered that the Nazis gained their mass following in Germany during the depth of the depression. If governments are democratically elected, efficient, with power proportionate to their responsibilities, the chances of dictatorship will be, if not eliminated, at least considerably lessened. Risk there will certainly be, but it would appear wiser to take these chances of retaining democracy and attaining efficiency, than almost inevitably to lose one and fail to gain the other.

It is a common assumption that democracy has most to fear from radical minority groups who, impatient with the slow process of democratic government, will attempt to gain power and effect change against the will of the majority. Nevertheless the possibility that a conservative minority will refuse to

accept the democratic mandate of the majority seems to many a far more ominous threat. It should be remembered that the latter minority controls the channels for the dissemination of propaganda through which most of the people may be fooled, at least for a short time, and this short time may be quite long enough.

COORDINATION OF POWERS

THE major task of political instrumentalities is to effect the economic coordination necessary for the more abundant life. Let us explore some of the adjustments that have been suggested and which seem to merit consideration.

One of our great needs in the United States is a more harmonious and coordinated working relationship between the various units of government. This is true of vertical relationships—those between federal, state, and local governments—as well as of those involving the federal executive and legislative departments. The whole philosophy of the separation of powers has been termed a philosophy of distrust. On the basis of this philosophy we have adopted a network of legalistic checks. More positive results might be forthcoming were we to concern ourselves with the question of which departments can exercise delegated powers most expeditiously, responsibly, and in the greatest national interest.

The immediate concern is with the political relations between the President and the Congress. During the past hundred years, the President has been a member of a political party different from that which has held a majority in at least one house of Congress over forty per cent of the time. Such a situation is undesirable under any circumstances; in times of political and economic tension it becomes a positive menace to the existence of democracy. Do not fascists gloat over the vacillations and ineptitude of a democratic parliament?

Even if we allow the Senate to be elected on the present unrepresentative basis, its powers should be curtailed. This can be

done by allowing the House of Representatives to override the Senate by a two-thirds vote. The members of the House should be elected for a four-year term, but once during this period the President should have the power to dissolve the House and call for a new election. No President would desire to exercise this power unless the two branches of the government were hopelessly at odds over an issue which both considered of sufficient importance to risk their political lives. If the new Congress still opposed the President, it would be his turn to resign, and Congress would elect a new President for the remainder of the term.

LEADERSHIP AND PARTY DISCIPLINE

THE second need is for definite and responsible leadership, not on the "führer" but on the democratic principle. Congress is not in a position to furnish this leadership. Moreover, legislation which does emanate from Congress is usually the result of sectional or group pressures, and not necessarily in the national interest. Every President who has gone down in history as a first rater has assumed this extra-constitutional duty of virile and aggressive leadership. And every one of these leaders from the time of Jackson down has been castigated and vilified. The power to dissolve Congress is an important means by which this leadership may be made effective. Disciplined political parties are the most efficacious means of promoting this result.

This brings us to the third need—that of disciplined parties more devoted to policy and less to personality and spoils. Policies are bound to be based upon interest; there is nothing cynical or bad in that. What is bad is the narrow interstice between particular interest and supposedly public policy. The removal of political spoils and more effective party discipline are the most effective mechanical means of promoting parties of principle. Straight party voting, in national elections at least, promotes this end as

well as that of political harmony between the President and the two houses of Congress.

There are those who recognize the evils of the spoils system but maintain that it is a necessary evil because it gives the President the needed powers of discipline. Those who believe that good government is promoted by voting for "the best man" are under a delusion, unless they define the best man as he who seldom deviates from the decision of the party majority. Only in this manner can a representative be held really responsible. Only thus can one be reasonably certain that any sort of a consistent program will be followed.

ADMINISTRATIVE EFFICIENCY

A FOURTH need is for efficient and responsible administration of policy. The New Deal, at least in certain fields, will not be noted for its proficiency in administration; the outstanding fact in this regard will be its lack of utter failure. The real importance of administration, in the broad sense of the word, is only beginning to be realized in the United States. Probably the greatest requisite is that of trained personnel, protected against political removal. That, however, is not enough. The knowledge and skill in the management of personnel, applied in the more enlightened business world, might well be applied to government on a more extensive scale than is now the case. But the best personnel will not enter or remain in a government body which is noteworthy for its lack of scientific organization. Here, also, there are fairly well established rules which government can and should apply on a wider scale.

These more specific suggestions are to some extent matters of technical detail for which the writer claims no originality. But whatever the means used, democratic government must be efficient, powerful, and responsible if it is to remain truly democratic.

Want a Thesis Subject?

EDGAR B. WESLEY

THE most pressing problem for a beginner in a subject or field is to sense and identify its problems. Many professors take the unwarranted attitude that a candidate for the master's or doctor's degree should find his own subject. What they really mean, or should mean, is that the candidate should select his subject, but the professor, who presumably knows the field and is aware of many of its unsolved problems, should certainly find, list, and discuss a variety of possible thesis problems. The candidate can thus choose with much greater assurance of credit to himself and benefit to others.

A THESIS problem should meet at least three criteria. (1) It should deal with a reasonably definite and tangible problem. (2) The problem studied should be, either susceptible of solution, or of progress toward a solution. (3) The thesis title should be so stated as to convey its significance to prospective readers.

The following lists of problems should not be regarded as finished in phraseology or adjusted as to locality. While some of them could probably be utilized in their

present form, most of them will gain by being made more specific with respect to time, area, or scope. Their local applicability will then be enhanced. The lists are therefore intended to be suggestive rather than definitive.

I. THE SOCIAL STUDIES

1. Sociology, or other subjects, as a social science and as a social study: a contrast and comparison.
2. State history in the social studies curriculum.
3. The utility of the history of any given state for schools.
4. The educational function of the American Historical Association, or any other social science organization.
5. The educational work of the state historical societies.
6. The activities of the National Council for the Social Studies.
7. The work of state social studies councils.
8. Integration in the social sciences.
9. Social studies articles in educational magazines.
10. Teaching materials from popular magazines.
11. The utility of the *Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences* for social studies teachers.
12. Social studies teaching in England, or other countries.
13. The lag between scholarship and textbooks.
14. The lag between historical scholarship and classroom units.
15. A history of the terms "social sciences" and "social studies."

Are there unsettled problems, topics, or issues in the social studies which would be suitable for study groups, research programs, or thesis titles? In this article, some suggestive answers are contributed by a professor of education at the University of Minnesota.

16. The teaching profession as reflected in the *Dictionary of American Biography*.
17. Elements of the social studies not drawn from the social sciences.

II. HISTORY OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES

1. The evolution of geography, history, and other textbooks.
2. A history of the elective system in high school social studies.
3. State departments of education as makers of social studies curricula.
4. The contribution of Basedow, or other educators, to the teaching of the social studies.
5. The social studies in the schools of any state, city, or area.
6. A history of the lecture method.
7. A history of the National Council for the Social Studies.
8. A history of the National Council of Geography Teachers.
9. The social scientists as curriculum makers.
10. The contributions of the federal government to social studies teaching.
11. The influence of war upon history teaching.
12. The influence of history teaching upon war.
13. Pressure groups in any given state and the social studies.
14. The teaching of geography, or other subjects in the post-Civil War era, or other periods.
15. A history of the professional requirements for social studies teachers.
16. A history of social studies objectives in America.
4. The relation of social to educational objectives.
5. Can educational objectives transcend social objectives?
6. Social objectives in the laws of any given state.
7. Social objectives as stated in newspaper editorials or speeches or platforms.
8. Attitudes as social objectives.
9. General versus specific objectives in the social studies.
10. Conduct: objective or outcome?
11. Social studies objectives: idealistic or practicable?
12. Trends in social studies objectives.
13. Social trends and social studies objectives.
14. Immediate and ultimate objectives.
15. Techniques for determining social studies objectives.
16. The contributions of selected groups to the determination of social studies objectives.
17. Skills or habits or qualities as social studies objectives.
18. Can information be a social studies objective?
19. Objectives allocated to the various subjects.
20. Civic needs as a basis for social studies objectives.
21. Social lags and social studies objectives.
22. Objectives of the social studies differentiated from those of other fields.
23. Local, or state, regional, urban, etc., needs as a basis for social studies objectives.
24. Who determines the objectives of the social studies?
25. Objectives of the social studies, graded and classified.

III. OBJECTIVES

1. The function of the social studies as reflected in popular magazines.
2. The functions of the social studies as reflected in the *Congressional Record*, or other publication or publications.
3. Objectives of the social studies as stated by the Methodist, or any other church, or by business, labor unions, public officials, etc.

IV. SELECTION OF CURRICULAR MATERIALS

1. Biography in the social studies curriculum.
2. An annotated bibliography of biography suitable for use in economics, or history, or other subjects.
3. A survey of the social experiences of

- pupils in any given grade or subject.
4. Some contributions of extra-curricular activities to social studies objectives.
 5. Trends in the treatment of selected topics in successive textbooks.
 6. The Bible in the social studies curricula of any given state.
 7. Social studies elements in radio programs.
 8. The phonograph as a teacher of history.
 9. The motion picture as a curriculum maker.
 10. The evolution of Muzzey's history, or any widely used text.
 11. The curricular suggestions of a selected group of laymen.
 12. The content of college and high school sociology, or other subjects.
 13. Criteria for selecting curricular content.
 14. Economics, or other subjects, for "Blankville" as mirrored in its local newspaper.
 - ✓ 15. The local community as a source of curricular materials.
 16. Local history in the curriculum.
 17. Local problems in the curriculum.
 18. The social studies program of the American Legion, or any other group.
 19. The social studies recommended by the Commission on the Social Studies, or any other committee.
 20. Child interests as a basis for selecting materials.
 21. The relation between scholarship and the curriculum.
 22. The influence of method on curricular selection.
 23. Objectives as a guide to curricular selection.
 24. Keeping the social studies curriculum abreast of social changes.
 25. A technique for identifying social change.
 26. The child approach to the selection of curricular content.
 27. The social heritage approach to curricular selection.
 28. The social process approach to curricular selection.
 29. The social needs of a doctor, or other profession or trade.
 30. The civic needs of an American.
 31. The cultural needs of a grocer, or other trade or profession.
 32. The continuing problems of a nation.
 33. A social studies program for "Blankville."
 34. Social deficiencies as criteria for selecting curricular materials.
 35. The special vocabulary of European history, or any other subject.
 36. The social vocabulary of some selected citizens.
 37. The out-of-school utility of certain selected school topics.
 38. The utility of social studies elements as judged by high school graduates.
 39. A review of quantitative criteria for selecting curricular materials.
 40. Social philosophy as a basis of curricular selection.

V. CURRICULAR ORGANIZATION

1. The function of the organization of materials in the social studies.
2. Chapters versus units.
3. Logical versus psychological organization.
4. Chronology in reverse.
5. Teaching the seventeenth before the sixteenth century.
6. A critical examination of the one-cycle plan in geography.
7. Outlining as a basis for organizing materials.
8. Parallel versus single-column organization in history.
9. The three-cycle plan in American history.
10. Teaching subjects through problems.
11. Problems in economics, or any other subjects.
12. Biography as a basis for organizing American, or any other history.
13. Political narrative as a basis for organizing history.
14. Social movements as a basis of organization.

15. The psychological advantages of subject organization.
16. The nature and advantages of subject organization.
17. The nature and advantages of unit (or problem, issue, etc.) organization.
18. Correlation, incidental and systematic.
19. Generalizations versus specific facts.
20. Some selected topics (problems, issues, etc.) in American history, or any other subject.
21. Integration of American history and the history of any state.
22. Economics organized from the consumer's viewpoint.
23. Sociology, or any other subject, for "Blankville."
24. Flexibility in organization.
25. Contents versus activities in the social studies.
26. Vertical and horizontal organization.
27. Organization for individual differences.
28. A plan for correlating English, or any other subject, and social studies.
29. Criteria for organizing materials.
30. Time and place as criteria for organization.
11. The criteria of difficulty in social studies materials.
12. Economic topics arranged in ascending order of difficulty.
13. A comparison of selected passages drawn from textbooks designed for three different grade levels.
14. Criteria for grading geographic materials.
15. Vocabulary difficulties and grading.
16. Abstractness as a problem in grading.
17. Pictures classified on the basis of their appeal to pupils at various grade levels.
18. Some concepts that appear too early in the social studies curriculum.
19. Grade placement according to the report of the Committee of Seven, or other committees.
20. Grade placement of social studies materials according to the course of study of any state.
21. Criteria for judging the difficulty of a topic.
22. Difficult concepts and topics in economics, or any other subject.
23. Chronological age as a basis for grading.
24. Historical chronology as a basis for grading.
25. Social experience as a basis for grading.
26. The social studies in the primary grades.
27. Study skills arranged in ascending order of difficulty.
28. Pupil preferences as a principle of grading.
29. Pictures as a basis for grading materials.
30. Distance as a basis for grading materials.
31. Nearness in time as a basis for grading materials.

VI. GRADING CURRICULAR MATERIALS

1. Some particular interests of boys and girls of any given grade.
2. Junior and senior high school history differentiated.
3. A synthesis of research on stages in the growth of children.
4. Transportation, or any other topic, at each grade level.
5. Progressive units in taxation, or any other problem.
6. A sequential arrangement of the meanings of such words as "constitution."
7. Changing interests of a selected group of students from Grade VII to XII, or any other feasible interval.
8. The passing of the culture-epoch theory.
9. A series of reading selections arranged in ascending order of difficulty.
10. Some selected topics classified as to difficulty.

VII. SOCIAL LEARNING

1. Experience as a teacher of social realities.
2. The economic experiences of a selected group of pupils.
3. The travel areas of a selected group of pupils.
4. Group versus individual experiences.
5. Classroom experience as a source of social learning.

6. Field trips as a source of social experience.
7. Social learning from part-time employment.
8. The effect of part-time employment upon class achievement.
9. The possibilities of non-verbal learning.
10. Experiential versus vicarious learning.
11. The direct teaching of special vocabularies.
12. Community experiences and social learning.
13. Systematically planned experiences as a basis of social learning.
14. Teaching pupils to read maps, or graphs, tables, etc.
15. The element of time in economics.
16. The apprehension and teaching of chronology.
17. The development of a time sense.
18. The frequency of time concepts in a selected group of citizens.
19. The most frequently utilized concepts in geography.
20. Arithmetic elements in the social studies.
21. Quantitative elements in history, or sociology, etc.
22. Scaled connotations of some selected words.
23. The social value of words.
24. Group versus individual learning.
25. The relation of experience to learning.
- ing for individual differences in pupils.
11. Methods based upon their approach to out-of-school life.
12. The effect of the adult education movement upon classroom methods in the social studies.
13. The methods of the social sciences transferred to the social studies classroom.
14. The status of the lecture, or other, method.
15. Methods which provide for pupil independence.
16. Laymen's views on methods.
17. Pupil participation in determining methods.
18. The functions of questioning, or of discussion, drill, etc.
19. An evaluated lesson plan.
20. The contributions of workbooks to methods.
21. The effect of equipment on methods.
22. Textbooks as teachers of methods.
23. The other half of method—the pupil's reaction.
24. The basic methods, delimited and defined.
25. The dramatic element in method.
26. Methods adjusted to various grade levels.
27. Trends in social studies methods.
28. Devices as aids to methods.
29. Criteria for judging the effectiveness of a method.
30. The relation between method and discipline.

VIII. METHODS

1. A critical definition of method.
2. The function of method in the social studies.
3. A classification of methods.
4. Factors affecting methods.
5. The contribution of Vives, or other educators, to social studies methods.
6. Methods of teaching history in colonial, or other, times.
7. Personality as a factor in methods.
8. The effect of scholarship upon method.
9. A survey of social studies methods in "Blankville."
10. The unit method as a basis for provid-

IX. EQUIPMENT

1. A validated list of equipment for the social studies.
2. School expenditures for science and for social studies equipment: an evaluation.
3. A comparison of American and French, or other national textbooks.
4. The format of history, or other, textbooks.
5. The principle of fullness in history textbooks.
6. The scholarship of social studies textbooks.
7. Levels of textbook teaching.

8. How to choose social studies books for the school library.
9. An annotated list of readings for high school economics, or other subjects.
10. Checking the outside reading.
11. The classroom utilization of outside reading.
12. The effect of workbooks on reading.
13. An analysis of workbooks in the social studies.
14. The use of workbooks for slower pupils.
15. Learning exercises in reading maps.
16. Map drills and how to use them.
17. How to construct and read graphs.
18. Graphs in social studies textbooks.
19. Static versus action pictures.
20. Teaching pupils to read pictures.
21. The use of pictures in teaching processes.
22. Phonograph records in teaching social history.
23. An analysis of available radio programs suitable for civics classes.
24. A validated list of specimens and models for history classes.
25. The extent to which teaching and learning aids in textbooks are used.
26. The status of the authors of social studies textbooks.
27. Should high school pupils maintain notebooks?
28. Freehand versus outline maps.
29. The publisher as author.
30. The values of scrapbooks.
9. The effects of a continuous testing program upon the curriculum.
10. The true-false form in the social studies.
11. Rules for constructing social studies tests.
12. The teaching value of tests.
13. Measuring the effects of radio programs upon achievement in history.
14. Measuring the effects of certain selected motion pictures.
15. Measurement as a basis for evaluation.
16. Testing and diagnosing.
17. The expansion of testing objectives.
18. The status of objective tests in the social studies.
19. Pupil participation in the construction of tests.
20. The social effects of testing.
21. Tests in current events.
22. Measuring the out-of-school value of economics, or other subjects.
23. The interpretation and utilization of test results.
24. The relation of objectives to tests.
25. Objectives as determined from test results.

X. MEASUREMENT AND EVALUATION

1. The status of attitude testing.
2. The measurement of conduct.
3. Prevailing errors in social studies tests.
4. Testing the sense of time.
5. Developing objective essay examinations.
6. The effects of objective tests in the social studies upon methods of teaching and studying.
7. Some unmeasured areas in the social studies.
8. Measuring the quantitative elements in the social studies.

XI. CURRENT EVENTS

1. Continuing elements in current events.
2. Criteria for selecting the significant in current events.
3. Current events: objectives or curricular materials?
4. Pupil performance on a two-year old current-events test.
5. Current events: subject or topic?
6. A critical bibliography on current-events magazines.
7. The radio and current-events education.
8. A plan for keeping up with current events.
9. Newsreels in teaching current events.
10. Current events as a basis of understanding Roman, or other, history.
11. The farm problem of ancient Attica: light on a current problem.
12. A survey of materials used in teaching current events.

13. Methods of teaching current events.
14. Devices for teaching current events.
15. The contributions of current events to social behavior.
16. The use of topical pamphlets in teaching current events.

XII. COMMUNITY AND REGIONAL RESOURCES

1. A plan for acquainting a teacher with the community.
2. Teacher-pupil surveys of a community.
3. Community elements useful in social studies classes.
4. Utilizing local speakers in classrooms.
5. Standards of community knowledge.
6. The social organization of "Blankville."
7. The trade area of "Blankville."
8. The cultural area of "Blankville."
9. Criteria to guide schools in cooperating with the community.
10. The travel areas of pupils.
11. Services which the school can render the community.
12. Field trips in "Blankville" schools.
13. Methods of utilizing local resources in the classroom.
14. Regional and community resources available in "Blankville."
15. The world in "Blankville."
16. An annotated bibliography of the materials relating to the resources of any state.
17. Social studies units drawn from the research of any state planning board.
18. The educational values of the work of the federal planning agencies.
19. Defining an educational region, or community.
20. Social planning and its meaning for the social studies.

XIII. PROPAGANDA

1. Propaganda techniques.

2. Propaganda techniques in radio programs.
3. Propaganda in newsreels and feature pictures.
4. Propaganda in current periodicals.
5. The objectives of propaganda.
6. Education distinguished from propaganda.
7. The historical method as a defense against propaganda.
8. Is ability to recognize propaganda in one area transferable to other areas?
9. Who are the propagandists?
10. Avenues of propaganda.

XIV. THE SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHER

1. The distinctive functions of the social studies teacher.
2. The social studies teacher as a citizen.
3. The training of a selected group of social studies teachers.
4. The civic activities of social studies teachers.
5. An annotated bibliography of educational magazines useful for social studies teachers.
6. The teacher's relations to community problems.
7. Graduate work for social studies teachers.
8. Improving instruction through travel.
9. A professional library for social studies teachers.
10. The social studies teacher as a student of the social sciences.
11. Mobility of social studies teachers.
12. Criteria for self-selection of social studies teacher.
13. Controversial questions and the social studies teacher.
14. The community adjustment of the social studies teacher.
15. Teaching combinations of social studies teacher in any state.

The Dilemma of Social Studies Curriculum Committees

J. W. BALDWIN

EVERYWHERE there is a strong tendency to consider the social studies the most important subject area in the entire school program. Many educators whose major interests are in other departments and many laymen in all walks of life are confidently looking upon the social studies as having the greatest possibilities for practical service to society in its attempt to cope with its unprecedented problems and perplexing situations. Yet there is, perhaps, no other departmental group of subjects concerning which there are a tenth as many differing opinions as to what material should be selected and what type of organization should be adopted. Various factors account for this divergence, of which the most obvious is the extent and complexity of the social studies area.

COMPLEXITY AND DISAGREEMENT

THERE are always many unknown and unpredictable factors in any social situation or issue. Further, we do not have any reliable measuring instruments with which to determine the relative merits of available

Curriculum revision through the cooperative efforts of committees of teachers has become a familiar procedure in recent years. This account of the problems of such committees, together with some constructive suggestions, comes from an associate professor of education in the University of Texas.

subject matter and possible types of organization. Then there are so many more possible types of organization and so much more subject matter than are found in other departmental areas that it is very difficult to secure agreement upon what to accept and what to reject. After careful selection has been made, we can never be sure that there is not vastly more material remaining unused which is just as valuable.

Since we have so little that is objective to guide us in the selection and organization of materials, we are inclined to seek advice from those who are considered frontier thinkers in the field. But here we are confronted by experts who are about as far from agreement as are those who would welcome their leadership. In fact, it is from these leaders that we have such a variety of proposals as to what subject matter should be selected and what type of organization should be adopted. And more bewildering to non-experts is the fact that many of the proposals for reforms come from authorities of about equal standing and seem to possess equal merit, despite the fact that they do not agree.

EVEN if it were possible to secure agreement among the innovators and frontier thinkers in the field, however, then the classroom teachers, especially the separate-subject specialists, would have to be reckoned with. There is a strong tendency for these specialists to lean toward the traditional organization, if not toward the traditional subject matter as well.

In cooperative efforts at curriculum re-

vision, usually working through committees, a committee is frequently made up of teachers who are such specialists. Each is too often inclined to demand more consideration for his major subject in the revised curriculum than other members or the committee as a whole are willing to approve. When a recommendation is finally made, it too often represents a poor compromise, unsatisfactory to all or practically all the members. In many cases the report is accompanied by one or more minority proposals which further befog the issue and postpone constructive action.

Teachers concerned with curriculum revision are further handicapped by the fact that many who write about the newer departures in social studies employ a confusing terminology. Many of these writers have in mind the same type of organization, but each has his own name for it. It is true that some of the writers make clear distinctions between the terms fusion, correlation, integration, combination, unification, and so on, but many others do not draw such clear distinctions. Still others, seemingly not to be outdone by the first named group, apply one descriptive term to several types of organization. Committees on revision of the curriculum would appreciate the use of a nomenclature which has the same meaning for all who make contributions to this undertaking, so that even "he who runs may read," and understand.

ADMINISTRATIVE PROBLEMS

IF and when these specialists and classroom teachers are convinced of the desirability of a fundamental reorganization of the social studies curriculum, and some agreement is reached about principles of organization, there will remain the problem of fitting such a revised organization to the total school program. It is not that administrators can not be convinced of the desirability of the revised curriculum, nor that they are unwilling to cooperate. They simply happen to be in a position to know to what extent their present schedules can accommodate such an

organization as the committee would like to propose. Their argument that such an organization of the social studies will have to be accompanied by a reorganization of the total school program, a body of subject matter written from a new point of view, and teachers trained with a view to effective manipulation of the new curriculum, is but the conclusion which anyone else so situated would draw.

College entrance requirements continue to play no little part in retarding the acceptance by administrators of the recommendations for improvements in the social studies curriculum. This influence is waning, but it takes time to overcome such resistance.

INCREASING CONSENSUS

HAMPERED by all these perplexing obstructions, what is a revision committee to do? It requires no little fortitude to make any recommendation at all. But upon some points nearly all seem to agree: that a fundamental revision of the social studies curriculum is long overdue—that the social studies, as they have been managed, do not function in the lives of children to the extent that they should, and that they do not contribute to the welfare of society more than a small fraction of the service which society has a right to demand of them. Only a very small minority are satisfied with the status quo. Pressing problems of the community, state, nation, and world are increasing the demand for action. To do nothing is to invite chaos. We must go forward, determined not to disappoint those who have based their hopes upon the wisdom of our decisions and actions. Our own welfare as well as that of the rest of society is at stake.

To admit that we are confronted with a Gargantuan task is not to admit that it is impossible of achievement. There are some definitely encouraging elements in the situation. The need for change is now widely accepted, and we have acquired some experience on which to build.

THE fact that we are all agreed that revision is desirable will lead many of us to make concessions for the common good, and the realization of the magnitude of the problem will help us to look beyond our narrow personal interests and traditional prerogatives. In many schools the administrative setup has already been reorganized in order to make possible any desirable changes in the social studies curriculum. This fact will, no doubt, furnish example and leadership for many other systems.

An appreciable number of prospective teachers are being trained specifically for effective direction of a revised social studies curriculum. Many experienced teachers are extending their training through reading programs, extension-center courses, and summer-school work.

A growing number of scholars are selecting and testing the value of a great range of subject matter and activities with as much precision as our inadequate measuring instruments will permit. At least some of the most valuable material can be chosen from the available mass. Proposed plans of reorganization usually admit of some degree of modification to make possible adjustment to the total school program. In other fields, such as the humanities, the arts, and science, the demand for revision of the curriculum is somewhat similar to that in the social studies area. This fact has a tendency to strengthen the pressure for a much less formal and rigid schedule for all departments.

SOME encouragement can also be derived from the fact that several of the leaders in this field employ different terms to designate practically the same type of organization. This means that our disagreements on many points are not so fundamental and so formidable as a hasty review of the proposals would lead us to believe. Even if the proposals were as unlike as a strict construction of the designating terms would indicate, there is still an undercurrent of similarity of meaning in almost all of the terminology employed.

Correlation, integration, fusion, and some other terms used by various educators to describe the type of organization which they would propose, have at least one common element in their meaning. When applied to the organization of a group of subjects, each implies a certain degree of proximity, combination, interrelation, and synchronization of the materials embodied in these related subjects as they are being translated into pupil experiences. This common element in the meaning of these terms is far more important than the points upon which agreement is lacking.

Revision committees may be assured that the demands of a very large proportion of those who are vitally interested in fundamental changes in the social studies curriculum could be met by the type of organization which would provide opportunities for the pupil to draw upon the subject matter of any field in his attempt to deal intelligently and successfully with the social problem, situation, or issue at hand.

CLASSROOM PROGRESS

CURRICULUM reforms have gone forward in some communities to the point where it is possible to select and organize materials in all departments in response to pupil needs, interests, and abilities, rather than in accord with precedent, college-entrance prescriptions, and rigid adherence to an inflexible schedule which is punctuated at forty- or fifty-minute intervals by signals to stop in the midst of an enterprise which is just becoming exciting.

There is almost universal agreement that the aim of the social studies should be to train for good citizenship and social efficiency. There is a growing demand for a great variety of supplementary materials as aids in the development of broader understandings. Parallel readings, pictures, charts, maps, diagrams, exhibits, excursions, dramatizations, contests, workbooks, club activities, participation in community affairs, and the like, should be provided for in the revised curriculum.

Admitting that practice is still far behind theory in this vital undertaking, we can, nevertheless, recognize that gains are being made. Drastic adjustments have been made in the face of great obstacles, and improved curricula are functioning harmoniously in some systems. But the necessary adjustments are so revolutionary as to require a long, hard struggle to achieve the desired goal in the majority of our schools.

COMPROMISE PROPOSALS

HOWEVER much one would like to be able to break abruptly with tradition and embrace the desired reform uncere- moniously, permanent gain and coveted success do not seem to lie in that direction. Good judgment seems to dictate a course, admittedly dangerous, between the Scylla of tradition, and the Charybdis of innova- tion. It is wiser to attempt a reasonably satis- factory transitional scheme which will be adopted and put into operation immedi- ately, than to hold out for a seemingly ideal arrangement that has practically no chance of widespread adoption in the near future. Furthermore, many of the advantages of the more ideal organization can be gained from the proper inauguration and management of a type of organization which makes con- cessions to both extremes.

It would be especially difficult to break completely with the present arrangement of the social studies in the last three or four years of the secondary school. But even on this level, one important gain has been effected in many high schools during the past quarter century through the introduc- tion of a course in Problems of Democracy, which combines civics, economics, and sociology.

With such a course adopted, would it not be wise to continue, for the present at least, to offer separate subject courses for at least three of the last four years in the secondary schools, with content modified to meet the demand for vitalized, functional subject matter and activities in this field? For ex- ample, if a course in world history, or a study

of the great movements, problems, and issues which have had most to do with the development of the present status, is selected as one of these courses, it should be defi- nitely prescribed that materials of geog- raphy, civics, economics, and sociology are to be woven into the pattern of the histori- cal narrative without regard to subject matter boundaries.

GEOGRAPHY will furnish not only the stage upon which the great historical drama is enacted, but to a very large degree will determine the nature and outcomes of many of the vital issues presented. It will be the office of economics to explain the causes for a very large percentage of the struggles and achievements of mankind in peace and war on the road from savagery to civiliza- tion. Government or civics will describe the rules of the contest. Sociology will bring to light the racial characteristics, mores, taboos, inhibitions, and beliefs which have been de- termining factors in many of the conflicts and tragedies which have both encouraged and retarded progress. The same kind of treatment could be used with a course in American history.

A course in government or citizenship will require many contributions from the other social studies to make its meaning clear and to open avenues for application of the materials mastered to the problems of everyday life. Government has had a long and perilous struggle up from primitive family and tribal mores to international relationships, and one can not master the fundamental principles of human rights and duties in all their innumerable and complex interrelationships without some compre- hensive understanding of their origin in a few simple necessities, and their gradual expansion and multiplication to meet the demands created by the increasing density of population and the resulting complexity of human relationships.

The struggle between differing civiliza- tions has multiplied and magnified the prob- lems of government, and has made it neces-

sary to understand the sociological influences in order to deal intelligently with the civic problems and issues of the present day. Clearly geographic and economic influences upon governmental problems of past and present are no less potent.

THE only real danger in this proposal is that the teachers of these various subjects may not make the combinations which are necessary for adequate mastery of the problems and issues involved. This has been the weakness of the separate-subject organizations heretofore, and has provided much of the argument for a unified course in this area. Theoretically, the separate-subject organization does not seem to be the ideal arrangement. But since the ideal arrangement does not seem to be possible of achievement in the majority of the schools at the present time, it may be possible to expand the course in Problems of Democracy to include the minimum requirements in government, economics, and sociology. Separate courses could be offered as electives in any or all of these branches if desired. Courses in history, with geographical backgrounds and relations, emphasizing social and economic phases of history, would then constitute the remaining offering in the department on the senior high school level.

THE ELEMENTARY LEVEL

IN the elementary grades and in the junior high school, the unified course in social studies, together with planned correlation or integration with other departmental areas, should prove successful in a very large percentage of our more progressive school systems. It may be necessary, for the present at least, to devote a semester or more in many of these schools to a series of social problems in which one of the social studies plays the leading role. Another period of time might then be spent in work with problems in which the subject matter of another social study occupies the center of the stage, until each has had its turn as the leading character in the drama. Many junior high schools are finding this type of organization a very satisfactory compromise between the demand for separate, parallel courses on the one hand, and the completely fused course on the other.

It should be our greatest concern, however, that at all age levels the interests, abilities, and needs of the students, rather than the demands of any subject or combination of subjects, should, at all times, dictate the selection and the organization of materials and activities in this field. Only through the students can subject matter acquire meaning and influence.

From the first days of the Republic to the present hour, education—organized education—has carried the responsibility of making people fit for self-government. If there was one thing the founding fathers agreed upon, it was that representative democracy cannot long exist without an educated electorate. They and the leaders who followed them thought of education primarily as a means of making democracy work (J. W. Studebaker, "Democracy Shall Not Be Plowed Under," an address delivered to the American Farm Bureau Federation, Chicago, Illinois, December 5, 1939).

An Experiment in Meeting the Needs of Superior Students

JAMES E. DOWNES

MANY teachers have become convinced that ordinary classroom work in social studies these days fails to stimulate or call out the best in abler students. If, as some of us suspect, their capacity to become the thinkers and leaders of the future is not being developed, that weakness in our program of citizenship education demands attention and correction.

THE BASIC CLASS SETUP

EVERY senior at Summit is required to take a full-year course in Problems of Democracy. This course is presented, for all, on the unit-mastery basis, with assignments given in mimeographed study sheets. Since no basic text is used, every student is exposed to the practice of seeking material from a variety of sources. The general procedure requires reading outside class, "laboratory" work in class, testing (generally open book); special reports, debates, panel discussions, and general informal group discussion of controversial issues. There is nothing of the traditional "recitation" in the procedure. Difficulties with factual

content are taken care of through individual conferences and through group discussions in which the students ask the questions.

The point of view of the course is that the students are citizens in a democracy, trying to learn something of the problems that face them today and that will probably continue to face them. Current events as such are not studied. The emphasis is rather on acquiring a background for understanding events as they develop. The objective is not so much the learning of facts as encouragement to independent thinking and the development of good civic attitudes. An effort is also frankly made to indoctrinate a conviction that democracy is the best way of life, that democratic principles should pervade every aspect of life and should be the basis for evaluating all issues.

This procedure ought to be a sufficient challenge to every student, but the fact is that day-to-day routine, the need for pacing the work to the limitations of the average students, and the large proportion of class time that must be spent in prodding and explaining, inevitably means that the quick, the eager, and the serious students become bored or content to do mediocre work.

THE PLAN DESCRIBED

COULD a plan be devised to meet the needs of these superior students? Without any previous intimation of what was contemplated, those college-preparatory students who had received an "A" for the first term were asked at the beginning of the second semester if they would like to participate in an experiment. It was made

How are we to provide the stimulus and challenge that our abler students need? Special provision for them is often administratively difficult, but this report from the head of the social studies department in the high school at Summit, New Jersey, suggests one promising solution for seniors in the modern problems course.

clear that participation was entirely voluntary, and that it would require much more work. The "A" grade must have been highly selective as there were but fifteen in the group—ten per cent of the total course enrollment.

The second year of the experiment selection was more subjective. Invitations were extended to all those who were thought capable of doing the type of work contemplated, regardless of grades received the first term. In fact, some students with merely average grades and one who had actually failed were chosen. It was felt in these instances that poor work was due to lack of sufficient challenge rather than to lack of ability. Two who had received "A" were not selected because it was thought that their grades were more the result of plodding effort than native ability. In addition to the selected students, admission to the experimental group was offered to any others who thought they would like to try the new procedure. Six asked for the privilege on the basis of the open invitation and three of those originally selected declined. The less selective second year's group numbered thirty.

MEMBERS of these special groups were excused both from attending class during the second semester and from all routine assignments. In return, they were expected to spend their time in extended research of a more specific nature. They wrote a full length paper on each topic investigated and met for group discussion periodically. Participating students were definitely on their own as to how and when they studied. They were free to go to the school or public libraries during free periods rather than to regular class or study hall, and they were not checked on where they went or whether they were working. They were encouraged, but not required, to consult the teacher about personal progress. The first year a definite time limit was placed on each assignment and all members of the group worked on the same topic con-

currently. During the second, however, it was merely specified that all work was due by June 1 and each person was free to work on his topics in any order he chose. Serious discussion took place in an atmosphere of informality that was conducive to good fellowship as well as good thinking.

EVALUATION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

GENERALLY speaking the results were good, though, as the reader may have expected, they were better the first time. The teacher's intuitive selections and the greater freedom of the second experiment were not a good combination, though each by itself might have worked out all right. In the first group one student requested permission to return to the regular class, and another was sent back. Of the second group, five were asked to drop out, and four gave up voluntarily. None of those in the second group who had asked for the privilege were able to carry on successfully. Those who remained did good work. In quality it was comparable to what they had been doing in regular class and in some cases much better; in quantity it was greater, and the challenge and accompanying mental development were certainly higher. Fully 75 per cent of each group completed the experiment with credit and profit to themselves.

CAREFUL selection is probably the most important consideration in any venture of this type. If the purpose of the procedure is to provide for the needs of superior students, it is essential that only superior students be permitted to participate. How to select them is the difficult problem. Presumably native intelligence, willingness to work, superior reading ability, self-control, and interest in the subject are some of the more important requisites. Our experience leads to the tentative conclusion that grades are about the best way we have of measuring these characteristics.

A second tentative conclusion is that even carefully selected and qualified high school seniors can not engage in independent study

effectively. This is not entirely their own fault. Much of the responsibility lies in a coddling educational system which has nursed, supervised, controlled, and directed them for so long that they are incapable of completely independent work. Moreover, each of the groups showed a tendency to spend time on their routine daily assignments in other subjects and to let the long-range problems wait. It was also found that these youngsters did not come voluntarily for individual help. This may have been due to inexperience as much as anything else, although adolescent reluctance to admit the need for help may have been a contributing factor. These considerations lead to the conclusion that definite deadlines for each assignment and regularly scheduled periods for individual consultation must be provided.

Another mistake had been made in assuming that somewhere in their previous school experience our seniors had learned the simple fundamentals of finding information, organizing and writing papers, and other such academic techniques. When confronted with the necessity of doing these things, however, their native ability saw them through and the group went far in mastering the rudiments of research.

A definitive conclusion reached is that group discussion is essential. Not a great deal happens when students work as individuals on a problem with a term paper as the end result. The interplay of minds is

necessary to stimulate thought and to create the feeling that there is some point in doing the work. The most satisfying intellectual experience these people had was in our informal discussions based on careful reading. It was an experience different from their usual social contacts on the one hand, and on a higher intellectual plane than the typical "bull session" on the other. Meeting with the teacher on a different basis was apparently of value; for in these meetings the teacher was simply a member of the group.

THERE was very little tendency to take advantage of the special privileges from either a disciplinary or scholastic viewpoint. Some of the group procrastinated and some proved incapable of independent intellectual effort, but only one or two showed any desire to loaf or any willingness to do inferior work. The students agreed that they had to work much harder, but felt that it was worth it. There was no evidence that those who were not selected for the experiment felt envious. Members of the special groups felt—and those who went on to college still feel—that the venture had given a zest to their last half year in high school, and that they had profited not only in acquiring more information but in developing better study habits, realizing the evils of procrastination, learning to work on their own, and mastering some of the techniques of research.

Dramatization in the Social Studies

DOROTHY ANN BRATTON

WHEN consideration is given to the psychological aspects of even the simplest form of dramatics, and when attention is given to the types of pupils who benefit from dramatization, it appears that those teachers whose plans do not provide for dramatization are missing a very real opportunity.

In the first place, play-acting capitalizes on the relationship existing between pleasure and learning. We tend to remember best what gives us pleasure, amusement, or happiness. Very few children can be found who do not enjoy dramatic play. Although there frequently will be some who approach the idea of "making plays" with a certain degree of skepticism, there is never any active dislike. The child usually enjoys dramatizing; he likes to make up plays and to be in plays. In his own mind he reviews his past contribution to dramatic productions, remembers the experience happily, and thus learns in a very painless manner. The child who has enjoyed for a few minutes the thrill of being George Washington, using accurate historical material in building up his scene, has definitely learned something about Washington. It remains

for the teacher, then, to see that what is learned is of value.

It is at this point that we meet another time-honored law of learning—that of repetition. Carried over into the classroom as drill, it has a definite relationship to our dramatic program. It is not possible to be a perfect George Washington at the first attempt. This or that scene will have to be gone over many times, at first to gain ease and facility, and later for sheer enjoyment. Each repetition deepens the impression made on the child's mind.

DRAMATIC play also measures up to the soundest psychological principles through varied sensory appeal. The visual-minded, auditory-minded, and manual-minded are all stimulated, and since few, if any, learn through only one medium, learning is made more certain by this double or triple "exposure." Consider the child who has read his daily history lesson without really understanding much about the Mayflower Compact. He is a poor silent reader, and if the lesson is dropped after a cursory discussion to which he can contribute nothing, his learning for the day is negligible. Suppose, however, that his teacher, realizing that his handicap is a common one, allows the class to act out this interesting scene. Our poor reader now becomes one of the little band of Pilgrims meeting on board the Mayflower. He may have to do nothing more exacting than signing his name to a large and important-looking document, but before even this is required of him he has listened to Carver,

These varied suggestions, showing how social studies teachers can capitalize on children's vital interest in dramatic play, come from a teacher of social studies who is also director of dramatics at Bennett Junior High School, Mattoon, Illinois.

Brewster, and Miles Standish airing their views on government, and has heard the Compact discussed by those members of his class who needed least help in interpreting what they read. He has, in fact, both seen and heard something that has now become intelligible to him. Dropped at the purely verbal stage, the Mayflower Compact would have simply remained something in his text that was too hard for him to understand. It may have been his task, too, to arrange furniture to represent the interior of a ship, or to procure a lamp, quill pen, large sheet of paper, sealing wax, or Bible. He may have helped to make Pilgrim hats, white cuffs and collars, shoe buckles, or he may have helped to assemble makeshift fire-arms. There are always such activities of a simple manual nature which bring with them boundless opportunities for learning.

PROBABLY there is no one in whom the creative urge is absolutely lacking, though in many it often remains dormant. In dramatics, of course, there is ample opportunity for awakening this urge to create, which, it must be remembered, is not limited to the desire to fashion with the hands a tangible thing of beauty. There are often stage settings, posters, properties and costumes to be made, but the possibilities for creative work are hardly exhausted here. It is the creation of a character or a scene, the rendering of a speech in accordance with both historical accuracy and characteristic personality, that holds the greatest opportunity for creative work.

"PROBLEM" PUPILS

LET us now approach this matter of dramatization from another angle, and consider the definite benefits which are received by different types of pupils. The purely social benefits are probably the more obvious. In almost any group of children there can be found several who, for lack of a better term, have long been called children of the "problem type," and it is perhaps these who benefit most by being encouraged or

allowed to dramatize. There is the shy or discouraged child who is unsure of himself. Given the lead in a simple play, he may surprise everyone, himself most of all. Perhaps he was never sure of his own opinion. Here is a time when his own opinion is of no importance anyway, since he must now be Abraham Lincoln. He has always understood that vast crowds hung upon Lincoln's every word. What, then, does it matter that his family is poor and his clothes ragged? No more than those trivialities mattered to Lincoln. Probably, too, he reasons to himself during this experience, "I never supposed I would be much good at a thing of this sort. But evidently I am, or I shouldn't have been chosen." And he may feel, after doing his part creditably, "That wasn't so bad. I believe I liked it. I think I did pretty well, but I can do better next time. I wonder when the next chance will come."

Another type of problem child, the show-off, needs help just as much as the timid child, and he too profits by dramatic experience. Whether the youngster who delights in showing off has had so much attention, or so little, that an abnormal appetite for it has been built up, it seems sensible to provide limited means for him to "shine" by his own honest efforts, so that it will not be necessary for him to resort to various antics to gain his ends. Quite apart from the teacher's approbation, which is usually sought by this type of child, the reaction of the rest of the group can in most instances be counted upon to provide a little wholesome discipline where it is needed. The class will be resentful of too much monopolizing of the center of the stage, and will usually be genuinely appreciative of work well done.

THE SLOW LEARNERS

THEN too the child who is mentally slow or dull invariably profits by being encouraged to take part in dramatic work. Any teacher of adolescent pupils has known many children who have never appeared in any sort of public or semi-public perform-

ance. As burdened as elementary teachers are with the routine matters that require attention, and with the sheer necessity of seeing that advancement is made in reading and number work, it can scarcely be wondered that the children chosen to take part in plays are usually the ones who need the least direction. Still, at the junior high school stage, when the social studies assume a major place in the curriculum and the opportunity for dramatization is unparalleled, the observant teacher will often feel that the greatest gains of all are those made by the duller pupils who are allowed to share in dramatic play.

There is another type of pupil who profits greatly by participation in dramatics, namely the unsocial individual. Since teamwork is necessary, if even a very simple play is to serve its purpose, the generally uncooperative child soon cooperates in spite of himself. He can not act out the entire play alone and so hold the center of the stage for himself, nor can he sulk and stand idly by, refusing to take any part at all. Instead he is drawn perforce into the game, and learns to profit by the give and take necessary in acting out a play. Eventually he learns how to accept criticism graciously, and give it courteously.

SUPERIOR AND AVERAGE PUPILS

THE gifted child also profits from dramatic work. The regular or traditional work of the classroom type is often too easy to require any real exertion on his part. Dramatics, however, challenge him. Given the slightest encouragement, he soon comes to see dramatic possibilities in almost any situation about which he reads. He is the one who frequently asks whether he may choose a group and dramatize an incident for the approval of the class. He enjoys writing the speeches, but is usually quite willing to allow "his" characters to invent their own lines. He has time to consult various references in order to be historically accurate. He enjoys finding music appropriate to his play, and will go to any length to help

assemble the stage properties and costumes. This type of pupil is one of the teacher's strongest aids, and she, in her turn, is helping him immeasurably by providing him with something worthwhile on which to expend his energies and abilities.

Finally there is the ordinary or average pupil who gains socially by being allowed frequent dramatic experience, who thoroughly enjoys this medium of expression and gains from the adventure a decided measure of poise. It is good for anyone to forget himself, to throw his whole soul into a situation outside the narrow confines of his own life, and in proportion as he succeeds in doing these things, he gains in the ability to meet without confusion the demands of his daily work and play when the time for dramatics has passed.

LANGUAGE SKILLS

IN considering the gains in areas more nearly mental or traditionally educational, we can note first an almost inevitable speech improvement.

This is the progress that pupils seem most aware of. Since the audience situation is always considered, there is necessity for repetition until correctness is achieved. Even one line spoken well is an addition to the play; on the other hand, one line mumbled or spoken in a slovenly manner does infinitely more harm to the whole than its meager proportion might indicate. Numerous examples can be cited of children who have caught the idea that an audience is entitled to the best performance possible, and then have so struggled to perfect their performance that lasting good in the form of improved speech resulted.

Improvement in speech is usually accompanied by improvement in oral composition. The child who knows that he is being heard distinctly takes greater pains to say something worth being heard. When he can safely give less conscious attention to his enunciation, he is usually able to concentrate more upon choice of words and sentence structure. Soon he can think on his

feet with less confusion, for there are countless times in informal dramatization when he must improvise hurriedly. This ability to give a suitable response spontaneously, in full view and hearing of an audience, is highly desirable. When a child has mastered the practice, all his formal and informal oral work will improve.

CLOSELY allied to improvement in oral speech is increased facility in writing. Many times plays must be written. Perhaps a loose-leaf file is desired for classroom reference. Possibly a more ambitious play is the product of several pupils, each of whom wrote one scene and submitted it for class approval. Often the play is largely or wholly original with one child who must think out the speeches himself and write them down in order to delegate responsibility to his classmates. There will occasionally be a contest in which several submit sketches based on the same historical event, the best to be the one chosen for dramatization. The ingenious teacher will have no difficulty in finding ample occasion to allow the pupils' interest in dramatics to provide them with drill in written composition.

AESTHETIC APPRECIATION

THE Aesthetic or cultural pleasure to be derived from recognition and appreciation of dramatic form is another desirable outcome of even the most informal dramatic work. A child's appreciation of a radio dramatic sketch is heightened if he has himself taken part in a similar sketch. Of course he enjoys the short movie features of historical value as well as the excellent full-length historical productions, whether he has any dramatic sense or not. His appreciation is refined, however, if he has had first hand experience in dramatizing an historical episode. The elements of suspense and surprise mean more to him, he is more critical of speech and mannerisms, and more observant of costume and setting. Thus to every form of dramatic entertainment he brings something more than a pas-

sive willingness to accept, and in turn feels a thrill that is not altogether vicarious.

TECHNICAL ACTIVITIES

IN addition to all the social and mental benefits accredited to the practice of frequent dramatization, there are the benefits of a purely mechanical nature. Although these three classifications, social, mental, and mechanical, are by no means mutually exclusive, there will always be certain pupils to whom the greatest appeal is mechanical or manual. Play-acting offers these children a chance to exercise talents which are all too often overlooked in favor of the traditional bookish abilities. Mention has been made of the arrangement of stage-sets, a simple enough task which delights one type of child. There are also stage sceneries to be painted, and other similar tasks which intrigue the child who likes paint pot and brush. Children vie eagerly with each other for the privilege of pulling the curtain when the stage is used, and in connection with marionette and puppet productions, no official is ever as important as the "curtain man." In like manner, there are tasks for the electrically minded. Sometimes the performance requires the auditorium, with large stage, and includes overhead- and foot-lights with movable "spots," or perhaps the performance needs only tiny twinkling Christmas tree lights on a miniature portable stage. In either case the electricians are proud of their responsibility; they rise nobly to it, and the experience does them good.

If the teacher holds before her the ideal of allowing dramatic work to benefit as many pupils as possible in as many directions as possible, she will be quick to admit the possibilities presented by all the mechanical phases of the simplest play-production, and to capitalize on the opportunities offered. There is something decidedly satisfying in being a very small but necessary cog in one wheel of a large machine, and the teacher who helps each child to lose his own identity as an individ-

ual, only to find it again as part of a whole that is harmonious, is doing him a lasting service.

MATERIALS

THE type of material chosen for dramatic work in the social studies will vary somewhat, depending on whether the dramatization is to be used in the classroom as a summary of a unit's work, as an invitational performance for another class, for a meeting of parents, and so on. In general, however, there are four main sources from which material for dramatizing may be obtained, namely, copyrighted plays, teacher-written sketches, pupil-written plays, and unwritten material.

There are, of course, many excellent copyrighted plays. In the case of a royalty play, it will probably be found that the necessary fee proves to be a good investment, but such plays are out of the question for informal classroom dramatizations. Moreover, there are relatively few copyrighted plays appearing in books or magazines that are suitable for children, and at the same time rich in social content. Frequently, plays written for children seem vapid and meaningless, and some so obviously point a moral that the child recognizes the situation as strained, and consequently questions the value of the teaching. Many plays lack literary excellence, some are historically unsound, and others are weak in dramatic interest. When none of these weaknesses characterize a play, there may be purely arbitrary objections; that is, the play may require too many or too few characters, it may be too long for the time allotted for presentation, or too ambitious for the limited stage facilities.

PLAYS BY TEACHERS OR PUPILS

MOST of the weaknesses noted in the printed plays can be obviated by the teacher who writes a play with a particular class in mind. The elements of adventure, mystery, or suspense in the story can easily be controlled. Facts can be checked for historical accuracy, characteristic conversation

added, and the whole given sufficient literary worth to lend it dignity, if not beauty. The teacher knows how many pupils she wants to use, she is acquainted with the stage facilities, and she can control the time element.

It should not be forgotten that there are always students who delight in enriching their own school day by putting into dramatic form some incident in which the class is interested. There is hardly a thrill more genuine than that of writing a play, casting the characters, and supervising the rehearsals and finished production. But while the method of delegating primary responsibility solely to one child is perhaps the easiest way of getting results, it is not necessarily the best. Since all pupils enjoy this work, the wise teacher varies her procedure so that the less forward child is given a chance to assume leadership. Usually a whole class can discuss the dramatic possibilities of a situation studied, decide on the main points of the plot, and the number of scenes to be presented. The class can then be divided into small committees, each of which works out one scene. With a little help from the teacher these "pieced together" plays will not be lacking in unity. In general, it is perhaps wiser to allow each child to perform in the scene he has helped to create, giving his own interpretation of the character he had in mind. This does not mean, however, that he may not assist in someone else's scene.

MANY occasions will arise for the presentation of plays without written dialogue. Such productions are naturally very informal, spontaneous as to action and often improvised as to speech. Considering their possibilities as aids to memory and social growth, as well as their ease of production, they seem well worth trying.

VARIED ACTIVITIES

MOCK trials are usually worth while experiences for the participants, although their dramatic possibilities are not

always recognized. Characters should be chosen wisely, and the misdemeanor of which the defendant is accused should be given sufficient thought. A line should be drawn between desirable and undesirable varieties of comedy, and the distinction between dramatization and perjury should be explained. Finally, separate rehearsals of lawyers, witnesses, and jury should be held, at the teacher's discretion, in order that the trial be conducted in as authentic a manner as possible.

A debate can be another form of dramatic production. Many of the same limitations obtain here as did in the case of the mock trial, but the value of a debate, though restricted to fewer individuals, is nevertheless lasting. Children enjoy giving their own interpretations of historically important debates.

IMAGINATIVE RECONSTRUCTIONS

SOME forms of dramatics are individual, rather than group, but their worth is none the less real. A child who reads to the class a few pages purporting to have come from Priscilla's diary, has for a time been Priscilla indeed, and has lived in colonial times. In order to prove to her classmates that she really is Priscilla, she has read all she could find of the lives of colonial girls, and is now able to converse intelligently of candle making and quilting bees.

Similarly, imaginary letters are of value. Without a single exception, all of Sir Walter Raleigh's letters smuggled out of the Guard Room recently were thoughtful and showed some appreciation of the spirit of the times. Here is an example:

Tower of London
1618

My dear Sir Charles,

This torn and crumpled bit of wrapping paper rescued from the trash pile will have to serve me, as I have no other, and shall never again have need of better. My moments upon this earth are numbered, as even now I hear the heavy tread of the guards outside my door. Through the miserable, little dirty window of

my lonely cell, I see being erected in the prison yard the machine which is so soon to cut off my head.

My sentence is unjust, Sir Charles, as I have served my king and have attempted to advance England's glory in the New World. I have but one request to make of you, and that is that you try to establish a colony in America. Here come the guards to lead me away. I die bravely, since my death must be God's will.

Your pal,
Walter

Admittedly, the complimentary ending is an anti-climax for which we are unprepared, having been so completely immersed in medieval thought!

ANOTHER individual form of dramatization which junior high school pupils enjoy is the game called "What Is My Name?" After a unit of work has been completed, each child briefly sums up the important facts in a chosen character's career, speaking in the first person, and ending with the question, "What is my name?" Often a child quickly improvises a costume or rearranges furniture appropriately to help create the desired illusion.

A variation of this game which more nearly approximates the traditional idea of dramatization divides the class into teams of two and allows them to carry on a conversation about their exploits which will enable the others to identify them. Usually there is considerable rivalry among teams in suggesting costume and stage-setting. In all dramatizations of an informal nature, costume and setting are merely suggestive. A child needs only a hat made of a folded newspaper to become a soldier, and a borrowed boy's coat transforms a girl into her brother or Robert E. Lee. Children's imaginations feed upon very little indeed, and the slightest change in appearance utterly disguises them for each other. A lad perhaps feels self-conscious in reading an old man's lines, but when he puts on some borrowed glasses, and picks up a yardstick to serve as a cane, he grows old at once.

The following brief sketch illustrates the use of quick costuming aids and stage arrangements. Two girls are representing King George III of England and William Pitt. The "king" has a paper crown upon his head and sits on a chair. By his side stands Pitt with books and papers under his arm. Behind the king's throne there is drawn on the blackboard a British flag. The "play" begins:

Pitt: Your Majesty, the colonists are objecting strongly.

King: Let them object. Raise their taxes if they prove disorderly.

Pitt: Their taxes are too high already, Your Majesty.

King: You, a loyal subject of mine, say that?

Pitt: Your Majesty, I am a loyal subject, and I should hate to see England lose her colonies, but that is what I fear will happen.

It is usually ridiculously easy to identify the speakers in this game, but that very fact seems to lend enchantment to the experience, and the performers increase noticeably in their ability to supply numerous clues to their identity without revealing too much.

ANOTHER dramatic game may be played, using largely abstract ideas as subjects for acting, instead of person's names. Thus a class that had completed a unit on the problems that arose in America after the World War drew slips telling what ideas they were to dramatize. Characteristic terms were bank holiday, inauguration, closed shop, World Court, famine, bonus, lobbying, landslide, depression, and prosperity. Each pupil had the privilege of choosing one assistant, if he needed help in putting on his act, and five minutes were allowed for consultation and preparation. The results were surprisingly original, while altogether plausible historically. Since the term drawn was never spoken, there was considerable interest in seeing who could guess the key expression. The following conversation illustrating "closed shop" will serve as an example.

Employer (to himself): I need an assistant. My barber shop is proving very popular lately. Many men are out of work so I should have no trouble finding help. I'll place this card in my window. (He displays a card reading "Barber Wanted," and then turns and starts lathering and shaving an imaginary customer.)

Unemployed Barber (approaching shop): I've tramped the streets for hours and all I hear is the same tale. What's this? "Barber Wanted." Here's my chance! (Enters) Good morning, sir. I'd like to talk with you regarding a position. I am an experienced barber, and should like the chance to work for you.

Employer: May I see your Union card, please?

Unemployed Barber: Union card? I—I—haven't any. I'm not a union man.

Employer: Then I am sorry, but I can't use you. Good morning.

STILL another form of dramatization is that engaged in by a whole class, when they participate in conferences as important political personages of the day. Thus the League of Nations holds a meeting, grouped about a large table, and representatives of different foreign nations give their own ideas for maintaining world peace. In like manner, the Pan-American Congress meets. Closer home, the state legislature holds a meeting, and Congress convenes in a special session. This technique may be carried back into history, taking such form as the impeachment of Johnson or the preparation for the Boston Tea Party.

MOST groups enjoy an imaginary sight-seeing trip, and again, everyone in the group has a chance to act. Perhaps two or three board a bus, in charge of a loquacious and obliging driver who points out sights and answers questions. Thus one group takes a trip up and down California's coast. Everyone not riding on the bus is engaged in some characteristic California occupation, and cheerfully answers questions concerning his work. The sight-seers enjoy hearing about the San Francisco-Oakland Bay and Golden Gate Bridges, and

indeed their bus route takes them over both bridges.

RADIO PLAYS AND PUPPET SHOWS

SINCE almost every home has a radio, and every child spends golden hours listening in, it would seem wise for the teacher to capitalize on this interest. Radio plays have several obvious advantages. Lines can be read instead of memorized, one person can take several parts, no costuming or staging is necessary, sound effects can be used, and disconnected scenes can be given unity by a commentator. After a class gives its first radio play, concealed from the general gaze by screens placarded "Radio," the pupils will constantly be on the lookout for other opportunities to dramatize scenes from the social studies work through this popular medium.

MARIONETTES and puppets provide an unparalleled medium for dramatic expression. The teacher who enjoys puppet shows and recognizes their possibilities while admitting their limitations, will find countless opportunities for using her puppet stage. If the puppets are saved from semester to semester, new ones added from time to time and the most dilapidated removed, such a collection will soon be accumulated that the puppet cast for practically any play can be assembled at a moment's notice.

It is perhaps unnecessary to go fully into a discussion of puppetry as an art, but it is not beside the point to enumerate some of the advantages of this form of dramatics.

1. Without exception, every child likes to work with puppets and the puppet shows are enjoyed by any audience fortunate enough to be present.
2. Practically any play can be given by puppet characters.
3. Either boys or girls can take any part, as half the fun comes from changing the natural speaking voice to fit the puppet characters.
4. Notes may be used behind stage, if necessary.
5. There is never any stage fright, or the least sign of self-consciousness. Almost any child will gladly make his puppet "sing" a few lines, whereas it might be difficult to persuade him to sing a solo in person before an audience.
6. The stage is always ready for use, and the performers are always in costume. Thus the very first is a "dress rehearsal."
7. Costumes, properties, and stage equipment are inexpensive.
8. The plays are time saving. It is the work of but a few seconds to perfect an entrance or an exit.

THE whole field of dramatization is one wide and varied, a field that gives pleasure and profit to teacher and pupil alike, a field abounding with possibilities for enriching the curriculum for every child who comes under its magic spell of make-believe.

Pupil-Teacher Planning in the Intermediate Grades

GRACE BAILEY

UNITS of the social studies may be organized in numerous ways. There are (1) units grouped about a core development of geographic understandings, attitudes, appreciations, and skills; (2) units grouped about a core of historical understandings, attitudes, appreciations, and skills; (3) units alternating around different cores—for example, a unit which is primarily geographic is followed by a unit which is primarily historical or civic; (4) units on aspects of civilization arranged in sequence, such as Transportation and Communication; (5) units arranged in sequence following themes, generalizations, or big ideas such as Interdependence or Man's Increasing Control Over Nature; (6) units arranged in sequence following such functions of society as Fire Protection or Conservation of Resources.¹

No evidence of the superiority of any one of these has yet been produced. It is of primary importance, however, that the materials of the social studies be organized into

¹ These plans are suggested and discussed by Mary G. Kely in "Middle Grade Sequences," *Social Education*, November, 1938, pp. 549-58.

In the elementary school, as elsewhere, teachers are encouraging pupil participation in planning and directing study. This account of a sixth-grade cooperative study of Asia comes from a teacher in the University Elementary School, Louisiana State University.

inclusive units of activity and understanding. With the guidance of the teacher, children should be allowed to (1) select a unit, (2) set up criteria for their choice, (3) raise questions and problems in connection with the unit, (4) work individually and in groups, (5) plan ways of organizing and using material gained from their research, (6) present their work, and (7) evaluate the success of the unit. Evaluating the success of the work gives the teacher an opportunity to determine whether or not the objectives have been realized.

Records of various activities now under way in the sixth grade of the Louisiana State University Elementary School illustrate the children's responses to the development of this type of unit planning.

SELECTING A TOPIC

AFTER browsing through the many books on the library shelves and reading tables, the children were eager to talk about the pictures, maps, graphs, or topics, in which they had become interested. The majority of this sixth grade group voted to study the countries of Asia. Six groups were formed, each of which chose to work on a different country. The following account of their selection was written by a member of the class.

The sixth grade has decided to study the different countries of Asia. We have divided our class into six groups. The members of each group elected a leader and a secretary. Each group has selected some particular country of Asia to study and is going to give a report on something of interest. Some reports will be

about the way the people dress, some about the way people make a living, and others will be about their home life and other things. We hope to make our reports interesting.

The following reasons for selecting the study of Asia were among those listed by the class under the headings suggested by the teacher.

A. Knowledges and Understandings

I will learn about the religions of the people of Asia

I will learn more about their history

I will understand the caste marks of the Hindus of India

I will know about the cities and rivers, so if I read about them in the paper I will understand what they are about

If I should want to go to work there I would know about the jobs they have to do

If I should go there, I would know what kind of people I would meet and what parts are civilized

I would know whether there are many diseases there

I would understand political problems better, as it is always better to know both sides of an argument

B. Habits and Skills

The study will help me cooperate with others

It will help me to use the dictionary more, and to spell and pronounce words

It will help me to use maps better

I will write compositions and improve my ability to express myself

I will learn to depend upon myself

I will learn to make things and learn to draw things as they should be drawn

I will learn the habits of the people and how I can improve some of our habits by following some of their good ones

The study will help me to read

It will help me to converse better

It will get me in the habit of looking up things I want to find out

C. Attitudes and Appreciations

It will help me to appreciate the art of the East

I will know some of their customs and superstitions

I will know what to think of the people

of Asia and will know what attitude to have toward them

I will be more sympathetic with the people of other countries, and have respect for them

I will learn the way people are getting along in this world

INDIVIDUAL PROBLEMS

AFTER the class had selected their unit, they were asked to list the problems or questions which they wished to work on. The list which follows represents a few of the suggestions contributed by members of different groups.

The exports and imports of countries of Asia interest me a great deal

The government of the countries of Asia interest me

The ways of making a living always have a special place in my mind, especially in the eastern countries

What is the history of the various countries of Asia?

What customs do the people have?

What different races of people live in Asia?

Are they a peaceful or warlike people?

Are the countries very healthful?

What is life like in the jungles and small native villages of India, the Malay Peninsula, and the East Indies?

Are their cities very modern?

What are some of the animals of Asia?

What are some of the deserts of Asia?

How do the people dress?

Was it always powerful?

Who were the important men of China?

Was India always independent?

What were some of the important wars of Japan?

What is their government like today?

Are the Russians of Asia warlike?

Were they civilized a long time ago?

DEVELOPING STUDY SKILLS

DURING the study periods which followed, the class and the teacher listed difficulties as they arose and discussed ways of overcoming them. It was found that many difficulties were due to undeveloped study habits and skills. The following out-

line refers to the specific study habits which we attempted to develop.

- A. How to locate information
 - Use the index
 - Use the table of contents
 - Thumb through the book and look at chapter and topical headings
 - "Skim" or glance over the page to look for words which are related to the subject you are looking for
 - Study the pictures and their captions
 - Look at the maps, charts, and diagrams
 - Read other books on the same subject
- B. Vocabulary development
 - Watch for new words
 - Pronounce new words
 - Get the meaning from the use of the word in the sentence
 - Read on ahead to see if the meaning of the word becomes clear to you
 - Ask the teacher if your other attempts fail
 - Use the dictionary

Working together, pupils and teacher compiled the following list of positive suggestions for directing the work periods.

- Plan what you have to do to complete your work each day
- Work steadily and as quietly as possible
- Be prompt
- Follow directions or plans
- Be thoughtful of others
- Put away books, scissors, crayons, and all work materials when the work period is over
- Cooperate
- Stick to the problem until you have answered it to your satisfaction

The class was asked to write of their experiences in trying to locate information. A few of the papers illustrate the type of study habits the children are developing.

MY EXPERIENCE

While in a free period I was browsing in a *Compton's Encyclopedia*. I saw a picture labeled Northmen. It was a picture of a viking. It caught my attention. I glanced at the caption and it filled the blank space in my report on Russian history.

I looked in the book *World History* and found the names of the most important people

of Russia so I could look them up. I looked up the names in the *Encyclopaedia Britannica* and got all necessary information.

WHAT I HAVE LEARNED ABOUT LOOKING FOR PRONUNCIATION OF WORDS

I looked in a lot of geography books for the pronunciation of the cities of China. Then I looked in Compton's fact index under the first letter of the city. Another good book for looking up pronunciations of cities is the *Goode's Atlas*.

WHAT I HAVE LEARNED ABOUT LOOKING UP INFORMATION

I have been having a hard time finding all the products on the Arabian Peninsula on one map. I picked up an Atlas that was on the shelf and thumbed through it thinking I would find something. Suddenly I came upon a group of maps of the whole world that showed all of the products. There was one product on each map. I put the products from every map on the map I had made and there I had all of the products of the country I wanted.

HOW I STUDY

When I look up information I use the index. If there isn't anything in the index, I thumb through the book to find anything on my subject. I have been having fairly good luck because I have found all the material that I need right in this room, without having to go to the main library. I find my meanings and pronunciations of words in the back of geography readers, geography books, and dictionaries without any trouble.

ORGANIZING IDEAS

NOTE taking and summarizing new material seems to help the class in organizing their ideas for reports, explanations, and other forms of oral and written work. Their note taking consists of listing topics or topical sentences. They plan to use their notes when they give their reports and realize that these topics will help to recall ideas about each subject. Several children have attempted to summarize the main points in their reports. When the class judges the oral and the written work, much attention is given to sentence order and paragraphing.

PUPIL-TEACHER PLANNING IN THE INTERMEDIATE GRADES 261

The following papers were selected as illustrative of the children's ability to plan and organize ideas.

MY ACTIVITY PLAN

I am going to make a book review of *Six Years in the Malay Jungle*. I am outlining the chapters now. I will make a book in which to keep the review, my criteria, my newspaper clippings, drawings, and other things of interest.

I hope my class will like the book review. I will put my book on the reading table. I feel that I have accomplished a great deal and hope to accomplish more. I found all of my material in the book from which I will make my book review. I found a lot of valuable information given to the author of the book by the government of the Malay Peninsula about the products, climate, dress, and races there.

MY ACTIVITIES

I have made an outline of the history of the Taj Mahal.

I am carving a miniature of the Taj Mahal out of soap.

I have made a study of the cities of India.

Right now I am in the process of making a picture map to show the interesting types of architecture found in India.

I have also made an outline to use when I talk about the Castes of India.

OUR ACTIVITY PLANS

Douglas and I are working on the history of Russia together. We get all the information we

can on the subject and then put it together. The result is a fine piece of information.

We will illustrate the history of Russia with maps, graphs, and pictures.

OUR ACTIVITY PLANS

In social studies Colleen and I are working together on Tibet. It is a very interesting country and I enjoy it very much. We plan to make the rest of the children enjoy it too. We are giving our report in a game-like manner. We will blindfold the pupils and lead them over Mount Everest, down a street in Lhasa to a restaurant for a meal, take them to a field, and through the Grand Lama's Palace and out again. We hope they will enjoy their trip as much as we enjoy our study.

TEACHER AIMS

TEACHERS should attempt (1) to find conditions which stimulate self-educative activity, (2) to increase learning and improve habits and attitudes of pupils, (3) to think of teaching primarily in terms of the development of the individual, (4) to see that children become conscious of their need for fundamental skills (in reading, writing, arithmetic, language, and spelling), and that provision is made for adequate training in them, (5) to see that the work is planned, developed, and used by the pupils and the teacher working hand in hand, in response to stimulating interests, situations and needs.

A Citizenship Laboratory for Youth

SAMUEL D. MARBLE

AT the present time there is almost unanimous agreement as to the inadequacy of instruction for citizenship and public life in the secondary schools. In certain efforts the schools have been relatively successful, as in fostering respect for law and inculcating willingness to conform. The incidence of anti-social and disapproved behavior is proportionately low. It is rather in teaching the techniques of democracy, in developing a sense of social responsibility, in training for realistic, active participation in the governmental process that the schools have failed.

Much public instruction has been unrealistic, and such surveys as have been conducted indicate that the transfer from classroom teaching to active public life is almost negligible. In education for actual citizenship, the schools have not been meeting the needs of democratic government, and in this have defaulted in one of their principal obligations to the society that maintains them.

THE reasons for the failure of public institutions to develop responsibility and inculcate an understanding of political in-

How are youth to gain practical experience in democratic government? This account of an elaborate and carefully organized project is contributed by a staff member of the Maxwell School of Citizenship, Syracuse University.

stitutions are several. The inadequate preparation of teachers, themselves lacking in either active or passive experience with public life, is one. Some writers have pointed to an absence of academic freedom as a deterrent to realistic instruction in public matters. An additional factor is the nature of the material taught. The subject matter has dealt with structure when it should have dealt with behavior. It has lacked a lucid and direct relationship to the dynamic problems the citizen is called on to consider and pass judgment. It has failed to provide the type of experience that develops the skills necessary to make the democratic process function. It has had too much the flavor of the library when it ought to have had the atmosphere of the workshop.

THE EMPIRE BOY'S STATE

ONE attempt to make citizenship a matter of experience as well as of formal instruction may be found in the Empire Boy's State which was established at Syracuse, New York, between July 6 and 15, 1939. This Boy's State is one of eighteen such projects which were conducted last summer in as many different states, primarily under the auspices of the American Legion, although various civic, church, and fraternal groups cooperated in sponsoring the projects.

For the Empire Boy's State 659 boys from every community and borough of New York were selected by their high school principals and the administrators of Boy's State for a ten-day stay at the State Fair grounds, with

their expenses paid while in attendance. The attempt was made to secure outstanding students who were either juniors or seniors, and since competition was frequently keen for the appointment, school leaders were generally selected.

On arrival each boy was given a medical examination, assigned to a city and county within the state, and placed in one of the two political parties, Federalist or Nationalist. Boys from the same home community were separated. Each city, containing thirty citizens, was under the supervision of a city counselor, and each county, comprising three cities, had a county counselor. The counselors were mainly lawyers, school principals, and graduate students in political science, each of whom had been prepared to advise the members of his community in the affairs of that particular unit of government.

LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT

ON the second day of Boy's State the two parties within each city held a party caucus, elected a chairman and effected a thorough party organization. Each party nominated candidates for city offices, drew up a platform, and made campaign plans. The citizens registered for the municipal election, received their ballots, and the entire electoral process was carried on according to the prescription of the election laws of the State of New York.

On the next day the newly elected city officials took office. Each city had four office rooms at its disposal: one for the mayor, one for the city council, and two to be shared by the other municipal officers. The type of government was the strong mayor-council type for New York cities of the second class. The council met under its own chairman, effected a permanent organization, and followed formal procedure at its meetings.

AS soon as the organization of the various city councils had been consummated, the administrators of Boy's State transferred

control entirely to the boys, and relaxed all rules of conduct except a few regulations of a general nature. The councils discussed their needs and legislated accordingly. They passed ordinances and enforced them through the police department of the city. The commission and the city comptroller prepared, with the assistance of the counselor, a formal budget, sometimes elaborate in its detail. Taxes were assessed with special charges for utilities and health services, and each citizen paid his assessment by check from his account in the Boy's State Bank. The local officials continued to function throughout the remainder of the session.

In conducting and administering the affairs of the various cities, questions constantly arose as to organization, procedure, responsibility of officers, direct legislation, recall, state-local relationships, and so on. In every case the procedure was made to correspond as nearly as possible to that customary in the conduct of local government in New York State. The function of the counselor was to act as a consultant for his group, advising them as to detail, or indicating the source of such other information as was needed.

STATE GOVERNMENT

ON the fourth day official delegates were elected from every community for the State conventions of the two parties. The conventions met in typical style, elected officers, and appointed a committee on rules and order of business and one on platform. By this time the citizens had become acquainted with each other and with the nature of the situation. Deals were made, votes traded, and agreements reached behind the scenes preparatory to the nomination of candidates for state office. A campaign was carried on with rallies, posters, handbills, bands, speeches, and all the gusto of senior politicians. A third-party movement was started and later dropped. All this was practice in the political process. For the citizens it was instruction in the behaviors that underlie the structure of government.

These experiences were a key to a real understanding of how the democratic process actually works.

The election was conducted with due solemnity and decorum. Voting machines had been borrowed and each citizen was instructed in their operation.

Following the election, the state legislature convened in the Boy's State capitol building and heard the message of the governor. The assembly elected a speaker, committees were appointed, bills presented, read, and assigned to committee, and debate and oratory had full play on the floor of the two legislative chambers. In every case attempts were made meticulously to follow parliamentary procedure, and the entire State administration was designed to simulate its prototype in Albany.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

IN setting up such a government a tremendous amount of information was brought into active use. The citizens and officials, in managing their state, demanded information that far exceeded the detail of basic texts in the field of civics and political science. The counselors were frequently pressed beyond their competence by questions of why one way rather than another should be followed.

It is interesting to note the serious nature of much of the discussion that occurred on the floor of the legislature. There was discussion of problems of import not only to adolescents but to members of the community at large as well. Resolutions were introduced and debated concerning such topics as juvenile courts, the state administration of higher education, Regents' examinations, and the sales tax. Resolutions were adopted and a delegation instructed to carry to the legislature of the State of New York an expression of the opinion of the citizens of Boy's State on certain salient matters.

Throughout the course of the State the American Legion stayed fairly well in the background. Only at the evening sessions were formal speeches made by adults. Some

of these were on Americanism. Several were given by principal administrators in the New York State government, and such talks dealt with their respective fields of activity.

UNFORTUNATELY no objective evaluation of the effectiveness of Boy's State was made. Another time, however, if carefully prepared in advance, such an assessment could easily be made. A before-and-after study would be feasible as the personnel of the group is the same at the beginning and the close of the session, and the boys do not leave the grounds during their ten days at the State. It is apparently the universal observation of both counselors and citizens, however, that the project is peculiarly effective in providing insight into the nature of the democratic process, as well as an understanding of much of the detail that regulates the behavior of state and local officialdom.

The effectiveness of the project is in large measure due to the fact that the administrators were willing to surrender to the boys almost plenary control of their own affairs. The government of Boy's State was self-government in a true sense. There was no benevolent despotism. The citizens recognized, discussed, and solved their own problems, and in so doing learned something of the mechanics of democracy. They had problems to work with that were real in so far as they themselves were affected, and their discussion and decisions were real by the same token.

AS this article goes to press plans for the 1940 Empire Boy's State are in the process of formulation. The number of boys participating will be increased slightly. The services of the Maxwell School of Citizenship and Public Affairs at Syracuse University will be drawn upon more than in the past, and the school may be expected to contribute in the preparation of the program, training of the counselors, and instruction of the citizens of the state. Selected readings are to be printed and sent to the participants

in advance in order to provide more of the essential background. There are indications that the number of local interest groups willing to sponsor boys from their communities has increased and other groups outside of the American Legion are displaying an increasing interest in the project. The date of the Boy's State has been tentatively set at July 6 to 15.

TO the average instructor in high school social science, no project in self government on such a glorious scale is available. Nevertheless the insight that comes from this method of teaching, and the values that arise from "learning by doing," are available at this level of education as elsewhere, although it may be that their scope is somewhat restricted. More can be done in giving realistic training in citizenship than has yet been realized. Within school, students should be given as much responsibility as they will assume. The skills of democracy ought to be learned before the individual is forced to assume the obligations of democracy. It is certainly difficult to explain to the child why dictatorship is bad outside of the

school on the one hand, and why the element of self-government is not good inside the school on the other. Surely individuals of the high school level have a right to be interested in their own problems, to study them, and whenever possible assume part of the responsibility in solving them.

The "participation" method of teaching has proved susceptible to a variety of adaptations. In various schools the students have been given broad grants of discretion in dealing with disciplinary matters. Some Pittsburgh schools hold elections according to established procedure with pre-registration a requisite to voting. The city government of Cortland, New York, sponsors an "internship" for youth over sixteen, with a council for general government advised and directed by the acting city officials. In other communities the high school students have participated in surveys of housing conditions, clean-up drives, and charity drives, all designed to teach the youth something about the nature of the community in which he lives, and to stimulate an attitude of responsibility for its welfare and continuing improvement.

It can no longer be accepted as a truism that the person who is a good citizen in his local community is automatically qualified for citizenship in the state or the nation. The requirements for the latter have grown to include a broad knowledge of national political affairs and the ability to exercise reliable judgment on problems which have their source far from the home community.

Thus, more and more knowledge must go into the equipment of the educated and intelligent voter. The fact that thirty million qualified voters do not exercise their franchise, even in the most exciting elections, certainly indicates a potential danger. It is even more alarming when voters are ignorant of the issues at stake. All too many of these latter have been persuaded to come to the polls with a feeling that their duty is done when they vote, no matter how little civic information and intelligence support their decision. (*The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*, Educational Policies Commission. Washington: National Education Association, 1938, p. 118).

Evaluation of the Unit-Directed Study Procedure

ROBERT SCOTT ELLWOOD

THE term "unit," in this study, refers not to a teaching procedure but rather to a desired outcome, that is, an understanding, attitude, or ability, which, when realized by a student, will presumably modify his behavior in a desirable manner.¹ The related teaching procedure follows or applies a learning cycle in which directed study is a prominent feature. "Directed study" may be defined as study conducted in the classroom under the direction of the teacher. It may or may not involve additional study outside the classroom in a study hall or at home. It is assumed that the teacher will assist students to improve their study habits and to achieve the goals of the

¹ Roy O. Billett, *Provisions for Individual Differences, Marking, and Promotion*, National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph no. 13. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1932. Pp. 357.

This study of the relative success of attaining specific objectives in modern European history by a "unit-directed study procedure," as contrasted with a recitation method, was made in eight high schools in central Illinois during 1938-39. The author, who had previously developed unit procedures for senior high school social studies, is assistant professor of the teaching of social studies in Illinois State Normal University, at Normal. He wishes to acknowledge the assistance given during the study by Professor C. G. F. Franzén of Indiana University.

lesson. The term "unit-directed study procedure" has been coined to name the whole method, for this name more nearly describes the procedure than other terms commonly used, such as (1) the unit method, (2) the unit-assignment procedure, (3) the unit-laboratory method, (4) the Morrison Plan, and (5) the contract plan.

A REVIEW of fourteen earlier studies, comparing some form of unit procedure in the field of social studies with the recitation, revealed three weaknesses, of which at least one was present in each of the studies: (1) the small number of groups used in each experiment (five pairs of groups was the largest used in any one experiment); (2) the basing of conclusions, in all but one instance, on only one measured outcome of teaching—information; and (3) the limited number of subjects used in most experiments.

In commenting on the second weakness, Davey and Hill² ask whether "two methods of teaching, the one designed to result in adaptation in the personality of the pupils, the other destined to lead to the memorization of the subject content, [can] be compared on the basis of tests which measure only the extent to which information has been acquired. Use of the tests which have so far been constructed is like trying to measure both weight and the length of an

² J. R. Davey and H. C. Hill, "The Unit and the Unit Method in the Social Studies," in the *Eighth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies*, "The Contributions of Research to the Teaching of the Social Studies," 1937, p. 19.

object with a yardstick." Testing in parallel group experimentation should attempt to measure as many of the desired outcomes of teaching as possible, especially if one of the procedures has been developed because it is hoped that it will enable more of the newer objectives of teaching to be achieved than, presumably, did older methods.

NATURE OF THE PRESENT STUDY

IN the light of the inconclusive results so far secured in comparative studies of method, due somewhat to the limitations previously mentioned, an attempt has been made to overcome these weaknesses, first, by comparing several paired groups of students simultaneously, and second, by testing four rather than one of the outcomes desired from study of modern history: historical understandings, social attitudes, interests, and learning abilities.

More than 155 pairs of students were used in the study. Two equivalent modern history classes, one following the unit-directed study procedure and the other the recitation, were taught by a cooperating teacher in each of seven high schools. The author taught the two classes in the University High School at the Illinois State Normal University, bringing the total number of schools to eight.

OBJECTIVES OF MODERN HISTORY

A COMPREHENSIVE list of objectives for the course in modern history, based on those given in William G. Kimmel's *Instruction in the Social Studies*, and in Charles A. Beard's *The Nature of the Social Sciences*, was prepared and submitted for criticism to four history teachers in the Illinois State Normal University and to the seven cooperating teachers. They agreed that the objectives were legitimate and to an extent possible of achievement in the second-semester course in modern history.

Objectives. A Study of modern history should contribute to:

- A. An understanding of the:
 1. Development of modern democracy
 2. Growth of nationalism and national states

3. Development of internationalism
4. Rise of imperialism
5. Interdependence of nations
6. Industrial Revolution
7. Present-day conflict between individualism and collectivism
8. Rise of socialism
9. Rise of dictatorships and totalitarian states
10. Modern attempts to solve world problems of housing, labor, education, poverty, finance, marketing, and production
11. Problem of war
12. Fact that national attitudes toward and methods of solving problems are conditioned by resources, geographic location, and historical background
13. Influence of science on modern life
- B. A development of the following attitudes, appreciations, and interests:
 1. Attitude that democracy is a growing concept needing constant correction
 2. Attitude of tolerance toward other peoples
 3. Appreciation of the fact that many pressing problems are international in scope
 4. Active interest in present-day world problems
 5. The development of an interest in the peoples and lands of the modern world.
- C. The strengthening of the abilities necessary to:
 1. Prepare and deliver reports
 2. Read and understand diagrams and charts relative to modern history
 3. Read modern history maps
 4. Locate on outline maps the countries and chief cities of the modern world
 5. Outline modern history material
 6. Find and utilize modern history references
 7. Read and interpret world news in newspapers and magazines
 8. Interpret cartoons on political and social matters

Copies of these objectives were prepared and given to all cooperating teachers. They were used by them in preparing unit assignments, in building unit tests for the experimental groups, and in planning and conducting the work in the recitation groups.

DIFFERENTIATED PROCEDURES

THE directions given the cooperating teachers reveal the procedures followed:

Directions for teaching the control groups. The traditional method of teaching history is to be used with the control groups. Daily assignments are to be given either from the textbook or from related readings or from both; reports may be assigned, library work given, and routine testing carried on. The recitation period should be used in quizzing the students on the assignment, in discussing the material, and in teacher explanations. Study of the lesson should be done outside the class period, in the study hall, library or at home. With the exception of reports, the same daily assign-

ment should be given to the whole class. The daily assignment may be given orally or written on the blackboard. Any explanation or motivation that appears to be necessary may be given with the assignment. The teaching of the control groups should be done as effectively as possible following the common objectives set up and within the spirit and letter of these general directions.

*Directions for teaching the experimental group.*³ The learning cycle consisting of presentation, directed-study period, discussion, and a test should be followed. A unit-assignment sheet, directing the study activities, should be prepared and given to each student after the presentation has been made.

The presentation is a motivating device consisting of a preview of the work to be studied and a discussion of the problems involved. It should orient the student's thinking. About one class period may be spent on it.

The directed-study period is the student's work period. In it he prepares under the teacher's supervision in the classroom much of the work outlined in the assignment sheet. He may prepare some of it outside class, in the library, in the study hall, or at home. Small group discussions over various phases of the work may also take place during this period. The group may consist of about five students and be led either by the teacher or a student. The time for directed study may vary from a few class periods to a few weeks, depending on the amount of work to be done.

The class-discussion period is one in which the highlights of the work are discussed, relationships are shown, and projects and reports are presented. The discussions may take one or two class periods and should be pointed at the objectives.

In the testing period, an objective-essay test is used to determine the outcomes of the work. The expected outcomes or objectives should be indicated clearly by the test. It should not be merely a factual test if objectives such as attitudes, skills, and understandings are taught. If a pre-test has been used, the two tests should be equivalent. One class period is usually long enough for the testing period.

³ Based on Robert S. Ellwood, *The Unit Assignment and the Social Studies*, Normal, Ill. Illinois State Normal University, Bulletin no. 145, Vol. XXXV, 1937. Pp. 30. A copy was given each cooperating teacher.

The unit-assignment sheet should contain a title, the objectives, and an outline of the required and optional work. A large variety of activities should be given on both the required and optional levels. Directions for study and study aids may be included in the assignment sheet.

These directions are the minimum for teaching by the unit-directed study procedure and may be supplemented by other activities discussed in *The Unit Assignment and the Social Studies*.

Be sure that both classes are taught the same subject matter, at about the same time; also, that current events or other materials outside the regular work be the same for both classes and be allowed the same amount of time. In other words, everything should be kept constant except the methods of instruction.

THESE directions were supplemented by visits to the teachers and classes. Suggestions were made and questions answered, to obtain as much uniformity as possible in teaching the control and experimental groups.

TESTS

SPECIAL tests were devised to be used as initial and final measures of those understandings, abilities, interests, and attitudes which had been specified as the objectives of modern history. The jury method was used in determining the validity of the items selected. In the case of the tests of understandings and attitudes, a great many items were prepared, then scrutinized and culled by a jury of five college and high school teachers until only those remained that met the approval of the jury. For the tests of interests and abilities fewer items were selected in the beginning, owing to the greater difficulty in gathering test items, though again group agreement was reached on the appropriateness of those finally selected. All validation methods reduced fundamentally to the consensus of competent opinions.⁴

⁴ G. M. Ruch and G. D. Stoddard, *Tests and Measurements in High School Instruction*. New York: World Book, 1927. Pp. 381.

THE test of understanding consisted of thirty-six multiple-choice, five matching, eight multiple-response-multiple-choice items, and three chronology questions. All were pointed directly at the understandings given as objectives.⁵

The attitude scale consisted of sixty-six statements, about half of which were favorable and half unfavorable to democracy, internationalism, and tolerance. Students were scored on the basis of agreement or disagreement with the position taken in the statement.

Interests in lands and peoples of the modern world were determined by the ability of the students to answer multiple-response questions on ten countries. The statements were such that it was assumed the students best able to answer them had the most interest in peoples and lands.

The type of test used in measuring skills included sections devoted to using the library and to reading and interpreting graphs, maps, articles of opinion, and cartoons.

The tests prepared for the experiment were used both as initial or pre-tests and as final tests. The initial tests, which were given to all cooperating classes during the first week of the experiment, were used for two purposes. The first was to furnish a basis for equating the classes, and the second was for use in comparison with the final

tests in order to indicate changes that may have been made as a result of teaching and class work.

THE TEACHING PROGRAM

EACH pair of classes in the second semester of modern history was taught by the same teacher in the same room and with the same equipment available. The experimental and control groups were selected by chance at the beginning of the experiment, that is, just as they happened to be scheduled for the classes by the administrations of the respective schools. It was necessary to equate them in order that the groups be equal for the purposes of valid comparison of their progress. The equating of the eight pairs of groups was based on the scores made in the four initial tests, which were also used to pair the individuals in the groups of each school. As a further basis for study, the entire experimental population was also paired with the entire control population on the basis of composite scores on the four tests, one group being made up of the eight control groups in the eight cooperating schools and the other of the eight experimental groups.⁶ These pairs were then compared on the four outcomes of understandings, abilities, attitudes, and interests. The results for the total population given in tables I to IV are based on this comparison.

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

TABLES I to IV present a summary of findings, that is, of the differences in gains between the experimental and control groups in the eight high schools in scores made on the four tests of the understandings, abilities, interests, and attitudes studied in the experiment. Results for the total population in each test are also given.

Table I presents both the mean gains and the difference between the gains for the ex-

⁵Reliability is the consistency with which a test measures what it is intended to measure. The reliability coefficients of the present tests were secured by splitting the pre-tests, odds versus evens, and correlating the split halves with each other. The Spearman-Brown prophecy formula was then applied to determine the reliability of the whole test.

The test of understandings was found to have a reliability coefficient of $.923 \pm .013$ when corrected for the whole test; the abilities test had a reliability coefficient of $.962 \pm .003$; the attitudes scale yielded a reliability coefficient of $.704 \pm .034$; and the test over interests showed a correlation $.731 \pm .031$. The coefficient for reliability of the entire test including the separate tests of understandings, abilities, interests, and attitudes was then secured by the use of T scores. This yielded a reliability of $.813$ for the split halves, or $.896$ for the whole test. These tests are on file at the Illinois State Normal University, Normal, Illinois. Anyone wishing to examine them may do so by addressing the writer.

⁶In this phase of the study the scores on each of the four tests were thrown into T scores. The T scores for each individual's tests were added together and the composite score was used as a basis for pairing the students in the experimental group with those in the control group.

TABLE I. MEAN GAINS AND DIFFERENCES BETWEEN GAINS FOR INITIAL AND FINAL TEST SCORES ON UNDERSTANDINGS

School	Group Gains		Differences	Critical Ratio	Chances in 100 that true difference is greater than zero	Group favored
	Experimental	Control				
Bloomington	19.88	17.94	1.94	.50	69	Exper.
Hoopeston	16.59	9.82	6.67	1.73	96	Exper.
Kewanee	21.18	15.64	5.54	1.18	87	Exper.
Normal	11.42	8.26	3.16	1.06	85	Exper.
Pekin	9.50	16.00	6.50	1.39	92	Control
Peoria Manual	20.00	18.78	1.22	.25	60	Exper.
Pontiac	7.55	8.82	1.27	.32	62	Control
University H. S. (I.S.N.U.)	18.55	14.64	3.91	.67	74	Exper.
Total Pop. (158 pairs)	15.15	12.88	2.27	1.63	94	Exper.

perimental and control groups in each of the eight schools in the test of understandings. It will be seen that, with the exception of Pekin and Pontiac, the schools favor the experimental or unit-directed study procedure. The study involving the total population in the experiment also showed a gain favoring the unit-directed study procedure. The differences in gains was 2.27, with a critical ratio of 1.63, or 94 chances in 100 that the true difference was greater than zero.

Table II presents the mean gains and the difference between the gains for the test on abilities. It will be seen that Bloomington, Hoopeston, Normal, Peoria Manual, and Pontiac all have differences favoring the experimental groups in developing attitudes, and that the difference between the two gains for Pekin is so slight that they may be considered equal. The Kewanee and the University High School results both favor the recitation.

The results for the total population show

a difference in favor of the experimental groups. The difference between gains is 2.80, with a critical ratio of 2.33, or 99 chances in 100 that the true difference is greater than zero.

Table III presents the mean gains and the difference between the gains for the test of interests. It will be noted that four schools favored the recitation, that the high school groups at Bloomington and Normal favored the unit-directed study procedure, and that the Kewanee and Pontiac groups had less loss in that procedure than in the other. The results for the total population were slightly in favor of the recitation method. The difference between gains was .71, with a critical ratio of .62, or 73 chances in 100 that the true difference was greater than zero. This part of the study was far less conclusive than the other phases.

Table IV presents the mean gains and the difference between the gains for initial and final scores on the attitude scales. According to this table, Bloomington and Kewanee

TABLE II. MEAN GAINS AND DIFFERENCES BETWEEN GAINS FOR INITIAL AND FINAL TEST SCORES ON ABILITIES

School	Group Gains		Differences	Critical Ratio	Chances in 100 that true difference is greater than zero	Group favored
	Experimental	Control				
Bloomington	9.94	4.94	5.00	1.49	93	Exper.
Hoopeston	16.27	11.40	4.87	1.12	86	Exper.
Kewanee	7.17	16.00	8.83	2.36	99	Control
Normal	5.84	4.63	1.21	.51	69	Exper.
Pekin	9.67	9.73	.06	.02	50	Equal
Peoria Manual	11.20	7.80	3.40	1.09	86	Exper.
Pontiac	9.20	7.30	1.90	.80	79	Exper.
University H. S. (I.S.N.U.)	12.40	21.50	9.10	1.93	97	Control
Total Pop. (161 pairs)	11.42	8.62	2.80	2.33	99	Exper.

EVALUATION OF THE UNIT-DIRECTED STUDY PROCEDURE 271

TABLE III. MEAN GAINS AND DIFFERENCES BETWEEN GAINS FOR INITIAL AND FINAL SCORES ON INTERESTS

School	Group Gains		Differences	Critical Ratio	Chances in 100 that true difference is greater than zero	Group favored
	Experimental	Control				
Bloomington	1.58	.32	1.26	.34	64	Exper.
Hoopeston	-.89	.61	1.50	.36	64	Control
Kewanee	-.80	-3.93	3.13	.90	82	Less Loss in Exper.
Normal	3.67	2.76	.91	.30	62	Exper.
Pekin	-.31	3.92	4.23	1.70	96	Control
Peoria Manual	1.91	2.82	.91	.31	62	Control
Pontiac	-1.61	-2.13	.52	.23	59	Less Loss in Exper.
University H.S. (I.S.N.U.)	-4.64	.09	4.73	1.14	87	Control
Total pop. (159 pairs)	1.47	2.18	.71	.62	73	Control

favored the experimental groups. Pekin results were equal for the two groups, while the remainder, Hoopeston, Normal, Peoria Manual, Pontiac, and University high schools, favored the recitation. The mean difference between gains for the total population also shows a gain in favor of developing attitudes by the recitation procedure, with a difference in gains of 1.11. The critical ratio was .83, or 80 chances in 100 that the true difference is greater than zero.

STUDENT AND TEACHER OPINION

THE teachers and the students in the experimental groups were asked to check alleged advantages and disadvantages of the unit-directed study procedure, to indicate their reaction to the plan in comparison with the recitation. Seventy-one per cent of the statements checked by the students were advantages and 29 per cent were disadvantages. The teachers responded similarly. Eighty-one per cent of the statements

checked by them were advantages and 19 per cent disadvantages. It was evident that the students and teachers preferred the unit-directed study procedure to the recitation method in teaching modern history.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

THERE are two kinds of evidence upon which to base the conclusions to be drawn from this study. One is the results of the testing program on understandings, abilities, interests, and attitudes. The other is the expression of opinion by students and teachers.

The evidence revealed by the testing program indicates a definite tendency in favor of the unit-directed study procedure in teaching understandings and abilities. On that basis one is apparently safe in concluding that, in so far as this study is concerned, the unit-directed study procedure is somewhat superior to the recitation method in teaching understandings and abilities.

TABLE IV. MEAN GAINS AND DIFFERENCES BETWEEN GAINS FOR INITIAL AND FINAL SCORES ON ATTITUDE SCALES

School	Group Gains		Differences	Critical Ratio	Chances in 100 that true difference is greater than zero	Group favored
	Experimental	Control				
Bloomington	2.50	-1.93	4.43	1.12	86	Exper.
Hoopeston	1.00	3.00	2.00	.55	71	Control
Kewanee	6.46	4.15	2.31	.60	73	Exper.
Normal	2.30	4.35	2.05	.56	71	Control
Pekin	2.92	2.92	0.00	.00	50	Equal
Peoria Manual	-5.20	5.90	11.10	3.44	100	Control
Pontiac	-.21	3.37	3.58	1.07	85	Control
University H. S. (I.S.N.U.)	-5.92	1.75	7.67	2.14	98	Control
Total pop. (159 pairs)	.73	1.84	1.11	.83	80	Control

No definite conclusions can be drawn from the study in respect to developing interests. The study may have been conducted over too short a period of time for interests to have developed, or it may be that neither procedure is conducive to the development of interests, or the test may have been inadequate to detect those developed.

Attitudes were apparently better taught by the recitation than by the unit-directed study procedure. It might appear that class discussion, which was a prominent feature of the recitation, is more favorable to attitude development than directed study, while, on the other hand, understandings, and abilities seem to be better developed by the use of directed study and the unit assignment. The unit-directed study procedure would probably be strengthened by the use of more discussion.

THE teacher factor was an important one in the study. For example, the Pekin control group gained in understandings to an extent greater than the average for the experimental group in the total population for the experiment, and had a critical ratio of superiority over the mean gain of the Pekin experimental group almost as great as that of the experimental group over the control group for the total population in the experiment. The individual results for the different schools also reveal other instances in which groups vary greatly from the general trend, showing that the teacher factor is often the predominating element.

The teachers and students were apparently in favor of the unit-directed study procedure, believing it to be more definite, fairer to the individual pupil, and more likely to develop self-reliance. The chief disadvantages revealed were that it does not correct the student's wrong ideas as quickly as the recitation, and that it does not make enough provision for review. The first disadvantage may be overcome by having a more frequent check-up on the student's thinking than was apparently provided. More review could also be arranged. How-

ever, there were more students who remarked that review was easier under the unit plan than there were those who criticized the lack of opportunity for it. It is probable that the most serious disadvantages found by students and teachers could be removed by modifying the procedure.

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Have You Read?

FRANCES S. BROWNLEE

THOUGH we are still beset by grave domestic problems of unemployment and agricultural adjustment, our emotional and intellectual energies these days seem to be largely expended on the European situation. And yet, according to a recent Gallup poll, 96 per cent of the American people are opposed to our taking an active role in the European wars.

In the *Atlantic* for March three representative Americans present their vigorous views on our present "muddling" position. David L. Cohn, who contributes "The Road Not Taken," sees the destiny of the United States indissolubly bound to the destinies of the European democracies. He chides us because "while we devoutly desire the victory of one side, seeing something of our own ease and security in the victory of that side, we extend it only our good wishes and our willingness to sell goods for cash." Such a policy, we're told, is little short of suicide.

Charles A. Lindbergh, on the other hand, argues that we have a "material and spiritual interest" in the welfare of both warring sides. But it would be foolhardy, he believes, to think that we could bring peace to "our parent nations" by entering their wars or by guaranteeing their treaties. In "What Substitute for War?" he advises America "to stand aside while the nations of Europe find their own destiny and adjust to their changing birth rates and conditions." Thus at least "one strong western nation may be left to preserve the flame of civilization and to lead the way from the chaos" that will follow in the wake of the war.

In an attempt to clarify "Where Our In-

terest Lies," the Director of Studies at the Council on Foreign Relations reviews the lessons of the last war and speculates on what this second world war may do to us. Pointing out that we can not hope to escape heavy losses in the trying period of post-war reconstruction, Percy W. Bidwell directs our attention to the long range objective of a more permanent peace. Freer international trade is cited as an essential prerequisite for an enduring peace, and since it is highly improbable that either the Allies or Germany will be in a position or in a mood to initiate tariff reductions, Mr Bidwell proposes that the United States proceed with plans for general downward tariff revision now.

THE 1940 ELECTION

IT is generally accepted that developments abroad will play a significant role in the 1940 Presidential election. If spring should herald intensified fighting on the western front, it is likely that reluctance on the part of American voters to "change horses in mid-stream" would increase. Should peace be restored in Europe within the next few months, however, the bottom would probably drop out of our new prosperity; interest in domestic problems would suddenly revive; and an intense dissatisfaction with the party in power would follow.

Discussing the "War and the Election" in the *Nation* for February 10, Kenneth G. Crawford assumes that neither the European nor Asiatic wars will be fought to any conclusion (except, perhaps, in Finland) before we go to the polls. "Great Britain and France

will continue to spend their cash in this country for airplanes, machinery, chemicals, and certain textiles, enlarging their orders as the rate of war destruction accelerates. Japan will continue to buy scrap iron and other necessary war materials in the United States while negotiations for a new commercial treaty proceed, with Secretary Hull using the advantage of Japanese uncertainty to drive some sort of bargain for protection of American interests." And as the war business gets better, President Roosevelt and the New Deal will probably receive most of the credit for prosperity.

Foreign policy as an issue in the 1940 campaign is further examined by Fred A. Shannon in *Events* for March. In "The 1940 Campaign Under Way" he maintains that each party will play upon popular sympathy with the underdog and hostility to dictatorships, to gain support. Each candidate will affirm himself "the best fitted to aid the democracies against the autocracies without getting the United States into the war. Even France will have to be pictured as a democracy! Ignoring or justifying the Mannerheim massacre of a score of years ago, Finland will be pictured as especially deserving of American aid. Far more concern will be shown for Finland than in the rape of other nations in recent years." And little attention will be paid to the fact that "Finland kept up her debt payments largely because she was the only debtor nation having a favorable balance of trade with the United States."

A SERIES of articles on presidential possibilities, entitled "Hats in the Ring," by Hamilton Basso, are currently appearing in the *New Republic*. In the February 12 issue "Young Mr Dewey" is subjected to critical scrutiny. According to Mr Basso, Thomas Dewey's youth is not his greatest liability. He is, after all, only three years younger than Supreme Court Justice Douglas, and approximately the same age as those New Deal "catalysts" Tommy Corcoran and Ben Cohen. It is Mr Dewey's apparent insen-

sitivity to the significance and "the very emotion of the past thirty years" that is lamented.

"Those years have been a bitter and tragic experience to millions of Americans. Mr Dewey's own life seems to have been untouched by them. Were he an older man, one whose mental arteries had begun to harden and who found it impossible to fit the pattern of the present into the shape of the past—*were he not a young man* . . . fairness would compel one to seek extenuating circumstances. As it is, only one conclusion is permissible: Thomas Dewey seems never to have ventured into the mainstream of American life. Perhaps success came too easily; perhaps the law, and golf, were enough for his imagination. In any case, for all his splendid ability as a district attorney, Tom Dewey, at thirty-seven, talks like an old man—an old Republican man."

"CAUCUS Jack" Garner is up for discussion in the February 26 issue of the *New Republic*. He is characterized as a mediocre politician who learned early in life that his most valuable asset was "a closed mouth," consequently, writes Mr Basso, it is practically impossible "to find him taking a definite stand on anything." During his first eight years in Congress, he made not a single speech. In 1926, however, he unwittingly made public his views on labor. "Pleading for the defeat of a bill intended to restrict the immigration of seasonal agricultural workers from Mexico, Mr Garner explained that Texas landowners expected cheap migratory labor and that the Mexicans were satisfied with \$25 a season. 'They are not troublesome people unless they become Americanized,' Mr Garner continued. 'The sheriff can make them do anything.'"

It may well have been this item that inspired John L. Lewis to describe Mr Garner as "an evil old man." For in that one sentence, "The sheriff can make them do anything," is expressed "the basic morality of the slave state."

As seen by Hamilton Basso, the Vice-

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President is "an old man whose thinking is largely determined by the symbols of 1875. Though . . . a shrewd politician he is not very popular with his people, and is thought to be disagreeably parsimonious, and the total complex of his character has caused him to take certain political positions which might easily be productive of social evil."

In the *Nation* for March 2, Allan A. Michie, co-author of *Dixie Demagogues*, considers John Nance Garner's slim chances of election.

IN the event that President Roosevelt decides not to run for a third term, the Democratic nominating convention will probably be deadlocked between New Dealers and Garnerites. A compromise candidate will then have to be named, and there are some Washington observers who believe that Senator Burton K. Wheeler would be a likely choice.

Appraising his record, abilities, and potentialities in *Current History* for March, Robert S. Allen writes that "Wheeler today would be either a member of the Supreme Court or the undeniable successor to Franklin D. Roosevelt" if he had supported the liberals on the Supreme Court reform issue. "Wheeler and the Liberals" stood side by side in 1924 when the Senator himself advocated "abolition of the tyranny and usurpation of the (Supreme) Court, including the practice of nullifying legislation in conflict with the political, social or economic theories of the judges." But now neither the progressives nor the conservatives trust him. They can not feel sure that he will not turn again.

SOUTHERN DEMOCRACY

AS a sequel to his study of the poll tax which appeared in the January number of *Survey Graphic*, George C. Stoney examines the one-party system of "Suffrage in the South" in the March issue. It appears that "all the politics worth bothering about" down in Dixie "takes place inside the Democratic Party." Each state, of course, has its

Republican Party, but the G.O.P. rarely makes a bid for statewide power. The small Republican groups hold their counties, and the Democrats hold theirs. And "between the two there is often a disturbingly close cooperation." The only state with an opposition party strong enough to win a statewide election is Kentucky, and as if by special arrangement the Governorship swung back and forth between the parties every four years from 1907 to 1935.

For the 1940 election, Mr Stoney predicts that "delegates to the Democratic National Convention from all southern states save Alabama, Georgia, and Florida will be hand-picked by county committeemen who were elected in 1938." Since there have been bitter fights between so-called New Deal and anti-New Deal factions in every state, spring conventions will have to determine the winners.

Actually, he concludes, "the South's action in 1940 will not be determined by a free people's vote on issues. Rather, it will be a dog fight between the old liners—with their stacks of poll tax receipts, or their blocks of locally controlled voters—and the pro New Deal men, with their thousands of relief recipients and other direct beneficiaries." The vast majority of southern people remain "helpless to participate in any political program that may help to restore the South to its place in the nation."

BRITAIN'S DILEMMA

IT would seem that England's foremost problem today is that of winning the war—or at least surviving it. But Eugene and Arline Lohrke, authors of "The Long Watch in England" in the March *Harpers* name the paralysis and stagnation of British politics as the essential threat to the country's national life. For if men below can not rise and men above can not look ahead "but must concentrate on keeping the power still in their hands," England faces a dark future.

These two American journalists, who have lived in England for some time, question

whether Albion has within herself that which is necessary "to meet and outmaneuver the exigencies of time and of her own vast dead weight. She could build battleships, guns, and planes, hurl the whole huge force of her finances and rearmament against an enemy on land and sea and in the air; but could she do that without which no life form, plant, animal, individual, or nation, survives? Could she change . . . ?"

"THE War and the British Middle Classes," by Ivor Brown in the same issue of *Harpers*, treats of economic and social consequences. If the Government is able to check profiteering and to avoid inflation, the "leveling" influence of war taxation will be tremendous, he writes. The effect on the British middle class and in turn, on all the habits and standards considered to be essentially British, will be severely destructive.

"British democracy will become, what it has never been before, equalitarian"; and the leveling process, "while it will impair much of the picturesqueness and smash many of the traditions of a leisurely, gracious way of living, will remove also much that has irritated Britain's visitors and critics; the exclusiveness, the fussy distinction between gentlemen and outsiders, the public-school snobbery, and so on."

ITALY MAY WIN

IT has been said that the most successful state is the one that gains its objectives without recourse to arms. At present, Italy seems to occupy this favored position. If Mussolini can maintain a policy of non-belligerency long enough, he might well emerge as the sole victor in the European conflict.

In *Current History* for March, Henry C. Wolfe briefly examines Italy's relations with the various powers of Europe and concludes that economically as well as geographically she is in a strategic position to capitalize on neutrality. Although no definitive answer can be made to the question "Is Italy

Winning the War?", Mr Wolfe believes that "The longer the war goes on, the higher rises Italy's nuisance value to both Germany and the Allies. The more money and human material is wasted by both sets of combatants, the more Italy's military and naval strength increases in relation to her neighbors. And the longer the conflict goes on, the more certain is the Duce to have a chair near the head of the table at the eventual peace conference. Indeed, if the war drags on its staggeringly costly way to a stalemate, Italy may conceivably be the only great power in Europe to escape economic prostration and social revolution."

An excellent map of Europe, showing the naval and air bases of Britain, France, Italy, and Russia, accompanies the article.

"ITALY Improves Her Game" writes Anna Lane Lingelbach in the March issue of *Events*, abroad, by strengthening the ties of her newly won friendship with the Balkan states, and at home, by intensifying the drive toward economic self-sufficiency. In the foreign field Turkey no longer appears to suspect the Italians of nefarious designs on Smyrna, and Italy's fears of a Turkish plot to seize the Dodecanese islands have been allayed. At a meeting of the Balkan Entente at Belgrade early in February, the foreign ministers of both Yugoslavia and Rumania paid a glowing tribute to Mussolini's efforts to maintain peace in southeastern Europe. The fact that Yugoslavia has become a friendly neighbor to Italy is highly important since they share two common frontiers as well as the Adriatic coastline.

In the domestic sphere, Italian policy is directed to the development of a strong autarchic state. The highest budget since 1918 was approved by the Council of Ministers in January, and at the same time numerous decrees for the strengthening of self-sufficiency were passed. Among the decrees passed was one prohibiting the importation of foreign combustibles for heating houses after this year. Another allocated 300,000,000 lire to the meat industry.

THE FAR EAST

THE results of the bitter war that has been raging in the Far East for the past two and a half years will depend in large measure on the results of the present European wars. It hardly seems probable that Japan will be able to confront whichever coalition is victorious in the West, with the *fait accompli* of a conquered and subdued China. For even if a Chinese puppet government is set up it will exercise the political and moral authority dictated by the Japanese military, and the Chinese who have thus far resisted Japanese aggression will continue to resist. Japan will then have to concede a voice in the final settlement of the situation in the Far East to the European victors.

According to Nathaniel Peffer in the winter issue of the *Yale Review*, the terms of the settlement of the "Struggle for Power in the Far East" will most likely "reflect the spirit which informs the European peace treaty. . . . If Japan in the meantime has allied herself with the victor or has laid the victor under obligation, she may have a deciding voice. If not, her desires will be overridden or she will have to make concessions that diminish the worth of her victory in China—if she is victorious. If the British and French empires are broken up, the lines on which the Far East of the immediate future are set will follow the distribution of power among the states that are left preponderant. Japan's position will be determined by her military weight relative to those states."

RECENT developments in the "Japanese Puppet Show" are discussed by G. Nye Steiger in *Events* for March. Although large-scale military operations have continued on several major fronts they are decidedly overshadowed by the far-reaching diplomatic and political activity of the Japanese militarists. In answer to the increased criticism

of governmental policy by the war-weary nation, the Abe cabinet advisedly resigned. The new premier, Admiral Yonai, repeatedly assured the Diet, however, that there would be no change in Japan's policy regarding China, and that the existing economic system would be maintained and strengthened.

In the meantime Japan's army authorities in China were organizing the puppet regime of Wang Ching-Wei. Early in January, the agreement between Wang and the army officials at Shanghai was duly approved by the Tokyo War Office, the China Affairs Board, and the Cabinet. The farcical announcement of Japan's "approval" of the terms emphasized the "fact" that Japan sought no Chinese territory or indemnities and pledged to respect China's sovereignty. When finally published, the conditions upon which the Japanese army agreed to support the puppet regime in China included the following choice provisions: designation of North China and Mongolia as a special zone for defense and economic development for Japan; establishment of separate local regimes with broad autonomous powers in North China (including the Hopeh, Shansi, Shantung and part of Honan provinces); and recognition of Japan's economic predominance in the lower Yangtze valley and certain islands along the coast; indemnification of the Japanese for all losses suffered since the beginning of the war; the stationing of Japanese troops in various areas for an indefinite period, and the reservation to Japan of the right to "claim and supervise" all communication lines in those areas.

In the winter number of *Pacific Affairs*, Franz Michael discusses "The Significance of Puppet Governments" to foreign concessions in China. English, French, and American interests are all involved.

NOTES AND NEWS

The National Council for the Social Studies met in St Louis on February 24 in conjunction with the convention of the American Association of School Administrators. The program for the three sessions, which ranged in attendance from 240 to about 400, was planned by R. O. Hughes of Pittsburgh. Local arrangements were in the charge of a committee of which G. H. V. Melone was chairman.

The morning session, at which Howard E. Wilson presided, considered "Education for Democracy." William G. Carr described the Educational Policies Commission's investigation of best practices in developing an "active, informed, and appreciative loyalty to democracy" in more than sixty carefully selected schools of the country. Not only the social studies program but the life of the classroom, the organization of student government, and the relation of the school to the community have been considered. A casebook of better practices—those that have succeeded—is in preparation. Attention is being given to freedom of discussion, to the status of minority groups, and to the treatment of controversial issues—especially those within the schools themselves. The investigators have also tried to discover what democracy means to pupils.

Walter E. Myer offered four suggestions for "Making Pupils Realize the Meaning and Value of Democracy": (1) have them talk about it in a course or unit on democracy, comparing it with other forms of government to see what it is and is not; (2) study the struggle for democracy—study history with emphasis on the struggles, victories, and defeats of democracy; (3) provide for practicing democracy in schools, in classrooms and school affairs, and through the teachers; and (4) train in attitudes, stressing the dignity of human life and the value of the common man, with attention to

the desirability of raising the average level of human welfare. This last involves character education and fostering of humanitarian impulses; it requires that youth see or gain contact with many kinds of life, through experience, fiction, art, and through movies of a type we do not now have.

Ethel M. DeMarsh of the Riverside High School, Milwaukee, described a program of extra-curricular activities that has contributed directly to pupil experience in democracy.

A. W. Troelstrup of Winnetka emphasized the need for administrative leadership in removing some current restrictions on the freedom of classes to study controversial issues, and described an effort to develop a school philosophy and to evaluate the school program through a joint faculty and student committee. He made several suggestions for increasing democratic practices within schools, and for developing a closer relationship of schools and society.

Edwin H. Reeder of the University of Illinois posed the problem of how to use experts in a democracy. He recalled our waste of natural resources—the total, partial, or threatened ruin of 63 per cent of our arable land, the pollution of streams, and the waste of fuel, oil, and gas, commenting that an autocrat, acting on expert advice, could deal swiftly and effectively with the resulting problem. He indicated that in a democracy the schools must face such issues, and pointed out that the elementary years present the only opportunity to reach a large number of pupils. Yet a realistic treatment of such topics as the South and its problems is now impossible, and textbooks are not able to print the facts. The speaker concluded with the further challenge that if democracy can not solve the problems posed, autocracy might presently do so.

Following the luncheon and business meeting, presided over by Howard A. Anderson, president of the National Council, Paul Hanna of Stanford University and John M. Cassels of Stephens College discussed "Using Our Resources Wisely." The former, after summarizing our rapid exhaustion of natural resources, and commenting that no culture can rise above the basic limitations set by such resources, urged the need for an organization of producers, consumers, educators, and specialists in consumer education. It is necessary to get experts together to consider resources in relationship to facts of employment and unemployment, to arouse sensitivity to the present crisis, and to develop understanding of the dependence of culture on resources. Dr Cassels' address on the consumer's viewpoint will appear in a later issue of this journal.

The afternoon meeting dealt with the treatment of current problems in the schools. Four short papers stimulated discussion from the floor, in which differences of opinion became apparent. Laura M. Braun, president of the Pennsylvania State Education Association, counselled suspended judgment and attention to evidence on all aspects in teaching the European war; some members of the audience were convinced that moral issues have already emerged, and that teachers can and must support "what is right." Mrs George Gellhorn of the National League of Women Voters, St Louis, suggested a fresh and informal approach to the study of political parties and machines, indicating the need for parties and for "straight voting," and acknowledging the social-service value as well as recognizing the iniquities of machines—from whom she thought "good citizens" might learn something about persistent attention to political details.

John H. Haefner of the University High School, University of Iowa, presented the special problem of teaching the C.I.O., while Kenneth M. Gould analyzed the strengths and weaknesses of contemporary newspapers and other sources of information.

The Board of Directors met with Howard R. Anderson, president of the National Council, in the chair. Others in attendance were C. C. Barnes, R. O. Hughes, E. M. Hunt, W. G. Kimmel, I. J. Quillen, Ethel Ray, E. B. Wesley, and H. E. Wilson.

The president, the editor of *Social Education*, and R. O. Hughes were appointed to the executive committee of the Board for the remainder of the year.

A revision of the constitution of the National Council was submitted to the business meeting on Saturday, and there adopted. The business meeting further voted that the provision for the establishment of a salaried executive-secretary should go into effect on June 1, and the rest of the constitution on January 1, 1941. In accordance with this decision and with action by the Board of Directors, Wilbur F. Murra will become executive-secretary on June 1, and during the summer will establish headquarters for the National Council in the National Education Association building, 1201 Sixteenth Street, NW, Washington.

Several publications of the National Council are in preparation. A resource-unit bulletin on housing will probably appear this spring. One on sources and their use is scheduled for the fall. A second curriculum bulletin, companion to "The Future of the Social Studies," is scheduled for late January. The Eleventh Yearbook, on economic education, edited by Harold F. Clark, will appear in October. The Twelfth Yearbook, on social studies in the elementary school, will be edited by William E. Young of the New York State Department of Education, whose plans are already well advanced. It is hoped that the Thirteenth Yearbook, to appear in 1942, may be concerned with "non-academics," or "slow learners."

Plans for the meeting at Milwaukee in late June and for the annual meeting at Syracuse in November were reported.

The revised constitution is printed below. Readers should note that Section 5 of Article III goes into effect June 1, but that the rest will not become effective until January 1.

NEW JERSEY

The Association of Teachers of Social Studies held its first regional mid-winter conference February 17 at the State Teachers College in Montclair. Edwin M. Barton, director of social studies at Elizabeth, presided.

Following an address by Dr A. L. Threlkeld, superintendent of schools, Montclair, on "The Educative Process," there was held a panel discussion on the subject of "A Four-Year Social Studies Course for Non-College Students."

The panel was led by Walter Kops, Plainfield High School, assisted by H. J. Adams, Columbia High School, South Orange; Lester Bunce, New Providence Junior High School; Michael Gatti, Union County Regional High School, Springfield; David L. Hatch, Montclair High School; Max Katzin, West Side High School, Newark; William Monprode, Hasbrouck Heights High School; and T. E. Smith of Leonia High School. The morning session closed with an address on "The Use of Environmental Resources in Support of Instruction in the Social Studies" by W. George Hayward, principal of Elmwood School, East Orange.

After luncheon Russell E. Fraser of East Orange High School spoke on "The Liberalizing Trends in College Preparation as Evidenced by the Requirements of the College Entrance Examination Board," and James E. Downes of Summit High School addressed the group on "Patriotism Re-examined."

The committee arranging the conference consisted of Edwin M. Barton, chairman, Northern District; Bergen County: Edward Hollender, Cliffside Park Senior High School; Essex County: David Hatch; Hudson County: Augusta Anne Hoagland, Bayonne High School; Morris County: Victor H. Boell, Morristown High School; Passaic County: Aaron H. Barringer, East Side High School, Paterson; Union County: James E. Downes; president, *ex-officio*, E. Schuyler Palmer, Montclair High School; vice-president, *ex-officio*, Geraldine M. Cooley, Plainfield High School.

On March 2 the Central Regional conference met at the State Teachers College in Trenton, and on March 7, the Southern District conference was held at the State Teachers College at Glassboro. The Association will hold its annual spring meeting in May at New Brunswick.

E.S.P.

CINCINNATI

"Professor Fremont P. Wirth, Chairman of the Division of Social Science, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee, was the principal speaker at a meeting of social studies teachers, grades 7-12, at Hughes High School, February 6.

"Professor Wirth discussed the possible means of using social studies to secure increased understanding of the present. Social studies, according to the speaker, have a real contribu-

bution to make, but subject-matter must be selected and used so as to contribute to an understanding of present problems. He commented that too much attention has been placed on the identification of personages, places, and events in social studies rather than on cause and effect relationships and the connection between past and present. A partially functional rather than a strictly chronological organization of history was favored. Reference was made to the general tendency of both theory and practice towards a social studies core in the senior high school which would be capped by a systematic study of current social, economic, and civic problems. Controversial issues, asserted the speaker, cannot and should not be avoided just because, for example, American citizens cannot wait until all 'the evidence is in' to evaluate the New Deal" (*Curriculum Development*, Cincinnati, March, 1940).

INDIANA

The Indiana Council for the Social Studies will hold its second annual meeting on Saturday, April 20, at the Hotel Lincoln in Indianapolis, at 10:15 a.m. The first part of the morning session will be devoted to examining the opportunities and resources for curricular improvement in the state. The recent appointment, by State Superintendent of Public Instruction Floyd I. McMurray, of a state-wide curriculum committee, and the appearance of the National Council's curriculum bluebook should make this part of the program interesting to every social studies teacher in Indiana. A real attempt to meet classroom needs of elementary and secondary teachers will be made in a discussion of the topic "Immediate Problems Facing the Social Studies Teacher in Indiana."

Dr Andrew Cordier of Manchester College will be the luncheon speaker on the subject "War Trends and Peace Plans in Europe." He precedes a visual aids demonstration and an address by H. M. Sayre on "Teaching Reading in Current Events." The program has been arranged by Miss Meribah Clark, president of the Indiana Council.

A planning committee has been appointed to identify and select problems for future study by the Indiana Council, and for consideration in its sessions.

K.B.T.

ILLINOIS

The February issue of *The Councillor*, the publication of the Illinois Council for the Social Studies, edited by Robert S. Ellwood, includes editorial comment on "Brass Tacks and the Curriculum" and seven articles on trips. The review section is edited by William Habberton. The activities of several local and district councils are noted, and attention is called to the annual spring meeting to be held at Jacksonville on April 26-27.

MINNESOTA

The Progressive Education Association selected "Resources and Educational Planning" as the theme for its Northwest Regional Conference held in Minneapolis, January 11-13. The first day was given over to classroom observation activities in Minneapolis and St Paul. Official observers were designated for various schools and their impressions were made the basis for profitable discussion Thursday evening. Dr Hilda Taba gave particular attention to the criteria, purposes, and practices of good social studies teaching.

Preceding the general session on Friday afternoon a group of high school students from Stillwater, Minnesota, discussed "Democratic Education in Practice." Friday afternoon Dr William Anderson of the University of Minnesota spoke on "Resources and National Planning," calling attention to the increasing need for application of science, research, and forethought to the solution of public problems. Dr Paul Hanna of Stanford University discussed "Resources and Educational Planning" at the same general session, indicating that the inter-relationship between human, cultural, and material resources implies the most careful kind of educational planning, and that the increasing complexity of society definitely forecasts a "new order" to be achieved either by educational or dictatorial methods.

The general session on Saturday morning was also devoted to "Resources of the Northwest." Herbert J. Miller, secretary of the Minnesota Resources Commission, gave a talk on "Natural Resources of the Northwest," especially in Minnesota. He believes that the mobilization of all the forces of education and research is the only possible way to realize the by-product potential of the various natural resources. A resources monograph is now in

preparation for classroom use. Paul Hanna followed with a talk on "How the Schools can Utilize these Resources."

In the informal social studies group discussion, Dr Hilda Taba of the University of Chicago, in her comments on curriculum construction, suggested that it was high time that the "so-called" expert curriculum makers toss the ball back to the teachers. "In communities where teachers have been given a free hand to adopt a course of study suitable to their own students," Dr Taba said, "the schools have shown an alertness and seriousness of purpose not previously comparable in those schools." Dr Paul Diedrich of the University of Chicago spoke at considerable length on how "Schools Utilize Community Resources." He believes that the general trend in curriculum development is in the direction of courses of a more practical nature than those formerly offered. Touching more definitely on curriculum trends, he indicated that one definite trend seems to be toward the "core curriculum" built around the common needs of boys and girls. Dr Diedrich further commented that pupil participation in the planning of activities gives promise of developing into an effective method of releasing human resources.

Other speakers who were concerned with social studies included Miss Ella Hawkinson of the Morehead State Teachers College, Edgar B. Wesley of the University of Minnesota, and Mr Peterson of the Roosevelt Junior High School, St Paul.

K.A.C., J.P.S.

MISSOURI

The winter issue of the *Missouri Social Studies Bulletin*, edited by Charles W. Merrifield, includes an editorial on "What Is Civic Education?" and articles by Elizabeth M. Wiley on the "In-Service Growth of Teachers through the Missouri Council," by G. H. V. Melone on a "Neglected Area in Social Studies Teaching," stressing growth in ability to think, development in work habits, improvement of study skills, development in expressional skills, increasing social sensitivity, and better social adjustment, and by Isabel Dolch on "World Relations and the Teaching of History."

The annual spring conference of the Missouri Council will be held at Columbia on April 13. The present officers of the Council

are: Elizabeth A. Wiley, Junior College, Jefferson City, president; Maynard C. Willis, Poplar Bluff, vice-president; Arthur A. Wichman; Jackson, secretary; and V. Don Hudson, Teachers College, Kirksville, treasurer.

NEBRASKA

A Nebraska regional conference of the Progressive Education Association was held at Lincoln on March 1-2. The numerous topics considered included the core curriculum in the modern school, the training of teachers for democratic schools, educating children and youth in democratic ways, using community resources in the elementary school, and what schools are doing in the social studies field.

The Nebraska History Teachers Association will meet jointly with the Mississippi Valley Historical Association at Omaha, May 2-4. Meetings especially planned for high school teachers will be held Saturday, beginning with a breakfast and ending with a luncheon session.

E.G.

BOOKS AND LIBRARIES

The current list of "A.L.A. Books and Pamphlets," issued by the American Library Association, includes several titles in which social studies teachers should be interested. Among these are the *Graded List of Books for Children* (1936. 176 pages, \$1.75); *1000 Books for the Senior High School Library* (1935. 96 pages, \$1.); *Subject Index to High School Fiction*, by Jeanne Van Nostrand (1938. 67 pages, 75 cents); *Our American Democracy*, by Alice M. Farquhar (1940. 10 pages, 25 cents), listing 34 titles; and *Democracy: A Reading List*, by Benson Y. Landis (1940. 16 pages, 25 cents), annotating 287 references, some of which could be used in secondary schools.

Several booklets in a "Reading with a Purpose" series are also listed, at 50 cents a copy in cloth, or 35 cents in paper. These include *Prehistoric Man* by George V. McCurdy, *Geography and Our Need of It* by J. Russell Smith, *Economics* by Walton H. Hamilton, *Sociology* by Howard W. Odum, *Twentieth Century Novels* by William Lyon Phelps, *Pacific Area in International Relations* by J. R. Condiff, *Latin America* by James G. McDonald, and *The Negro in America* by Alain Locke.

CONSERVATION

Elementary school teachers may obtain a very well reported unit for use in grades one through six on *Conservation of the Soil*. This unit was originally developed at Fairbrother-Rossell School, Washington, D. C., in cooperation with the Soil Conservation Service, United States Department of Agriculture. The mimeographed publication contains a summary of the unit, the way in which it was planned, and of the activities and teaching procedures used, and the appendix contains a very well reproduced copy of the theme, the poetry, and the pictures developed by the children. This free publication may be obtained by writing H. H. Bennett, Chief, Soil Conservation Service, United States Department of Agriculture, Washington.

CONSUMER EDUCATION

Scientific Consumer Purchasing, a Study Guide for Consumers (81 pages, 60 cents), by Alice L. Edwards, has recently been published by the American Association of University Women, Washington. Part I is a general consideration of the consumer's problems; Part II takes up specific commodities.

The *Consumer Education* news letter, published monthly during the school year by the Institute for Consumer Education, Columbia, Missouri, continues to review proposed legislation, new publications, and other developments pertinent to consumer problems. The subscription rate is 25 cents a year.

The second National Conference on Consumer Education will be held at the Institute for Consumer Education, Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri, April 1-3. The many sessions include an afternoon round table, April 2, on Coordination and Planning of Consumer Education in Schools, led by R. O. Hughes of Pittsburgh, and an evening session, also on April 2, at which Harold F. Clark of Teachers College, Columbia University, will speak on "Vitalizing Economic Education."

The proceedings of the 1939 conference have been published in a volume entitled *Next Steps in Consumer Education*, edited by Helen Dallas.

FOREIGN AFFAIRS

Teachers of current events and contemporary affairs should know bulletins issued twice each month by the Washington Information service of the National Peace Conference. These are prepared by the Washington Bureau of the Foreign Policy Association, and are available from the Association at 8 West 40th Street, New York, at \$2.00 a year, or 15 cents a copy. Each issue summarizes and comments on developments abroad and American policy, and presents a digest of related activity in Congress.

WILLIAM H. HATHAWAY

William H. Hathaway, president of the National Council for the Social Studies in 1922, and long head of the history department in the Riverside High School at Milwaukee, died on January 28 after a brief illness. His passing makes the second gap in the ranks of the National Council's former presidents; the first president Professor Albert Edward McKinley, died in 1936.

The following tribute to Mr Hathaway appeared in the Milwaukee *Promoter* on February 16:

"William H. Hathaway, instructor in the social science department at Riverside High for 26 years, recently passed away after a brief illness.

"Product of a long line of English students and thinkers, Mr Hathaway was reared in the tradition of studiousness and humanitarianism. Through training for a trade, printing, and a profession, teaching, he developed his heritage and his natural gifts, and acquired a broad and sympathetic understanding of his fellow men.

"He gave wholly of himself in the classroom, in the church, in the community. He served his profession through active membership in the Milwaukee Teachers' Co-operative Council, and as past president of the Milwaukee Junior-Senior High School Teachers' Association. He was, in addition, a former president of the National Social Studies association.

"Because of his identity with numerous school activities he was a vital influence in the lives of many Riverside students. A teacher, scholar, and adviser he left a lasting imprint on the character of those young people with whom he was associated. He stimulated his pupils to an appreciation of scholarship and a

realization of themselves. He knew their needs before they voiced them, knew them and acted to overcome them.

"For his generous contribution to the civic, religious, and educational life of his community Mr Hathaway will be well remembered."

Readers are invited to send in items—programs and accounts of meetings, curriculum changes and classroom experiments, or personal items of general interest for "Notes and News." Items for the May issue should be sent in by April 5; items for October by September 1.

Contributors to this issue include: Kermit A. Cook, Ethel M. DeMarsh, Katharine W. Dresden, Eliza Gamble, James A. Michener, E. Schuyler Palmer, James P. Schroeder, and Kenneth B. Thurston.

TOLERANCE

An American Answer to Intolerance, a teacher's manual for junior and senior high schools, has been issued in experimental form by the Council against Intolerance in America (Lincoln Building, New York City, 1939. 130 pages). The four parts, or "approaches," deal with the recognition of prejudice, the study of propaganda devices, American ideals, and accurate knowledge in areas where propaganda is most often encountered. The introduction explains that "This is in no sense an attempt to impose on existing curricula a 'Tolerance' program. Rather we offer to classroom teachers specific procedures which have been used with success and factual information which can be incorporated either in part or completely in courses and subjects now being taught. This material may be a basis for units; it may be incorporated into other units; or it may merely serve as inspiration or information to the teacher."

RECENT MAGAZINE ARTICLES ON
TEACHING THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Reynolds, Rollo G. "Democracy in the Classroom," *Teachers College Record*, XLI: 427-36, February, 1940. Examples to support the view that "democracy is being taught and practiced a great deal more than many of us realize."

Wesley, Edgar B. "New Occasions Teach New Duties," *Harvard Educational Review*, X: 7-18, January, 1940. Consideration of the need for and ways of educating in democratic citizenship.

Wood, Howard D. "Guidance in Providence's Integrated Curriculum," *Clearing House*, XIV: 336-39, February, 1940. Description of a junior high school program built around the social studies.

Sight and Sound in the Social Studies

WILLIAM H. HARTLEY

THE COMMERCIAL CINEMA

Not in many a year has there appeared so much first class social science material on the screens of our motion picture theatres. Social studies teachers can not afford to ignore the potency of this influence. Probably all students will eventually see *Gone with the Wind*. As a result, the Civil War and the Reconstruction period will take on new meanings and new interest. So vivid are the impressions left by this film that the writer is convinced that scenes such as the wounded lying at the Atlanta station will live in the memories of many long after Scarlett's abnormal hysterics have been forgotten. It is not improbable that reference to this scene will kindle a spark of interest in history classes for years to come.

Less wide in appeal but probably even more significant is the hard-hitting *Grapes of Wrath*. This film deals with the "Oakies" of the dust bowl who are forced off their lands by the "dusters" and the caterpillar tractors. Thoroughly mature in its outlook, this film is not recommended for the grade school student, but pupils in the senior high school should find in it a real challenge. Above all, students should be encouraged to investigate the accuracy of the facts portrayed.

Another film which will be seen is *The Fighting 69th*, a realistic film on the World War centering about the career of Father Duffy. Advertised as anti-war in its outlook, it actually glorifies combat and will send many a young boy away from the theatre with the fervent hope for an early war where he may prove his fortitude. Valor of another sort is pictured in *Dr. Ehrlich's Magic Bullet*, the story of the struggles of a Berlin physician to find a cure for syphilis. Many may doubt the wisdom of a discussion of this material in social studies classes, but if the student can not turn to his

teacher for guidance concerning the significance of this stirring struggle, where can he turn?

Two other films which are bound to attract the attention of students are *Abe Lincoln in Illinois* and *Young Tom Edison*. The first deals with Lincoln's life up to his election as president. Raymond Massey's portrayal of young Lincoln is superb. Students will note and long remember the scenes which show the Lincoln-Douglas debates. *Young Tom Edison* finds Mickey Rooney portraying the early life of the great inventor. An interesting and human document, its greatest value lies in the interest it will arouse in Edison and the appetite it will give for its sequel, *Edison, The Man*.

GUIDES TO THEATRICAL FILMS

Many teachers are already familiar with the *Photoplay Studies* published weekly by Educational and Recreational Guides, Inc., 1501 Broadway, New York. These guides furnish discussion material for current theatrical films. Many of these guides are now issued in a cumulated monthly *Group Discussion Guide*. Subscriptions are \$2.00 a year for all materials. Sample guides may be obtained at 15 cents a copy. Forthcoming guides will be available for the following films: *Knights of the Round Table*, *Tree of Liberty*, *Benjamin Franklin*, *Thomas Edison*, *Horace Mann*, *Madame Curie*, and *Antony and Cleopatra*.

METROPOLITAN MOTION PICTURE COUNCIL

With membership open to all interested in the motion picture as an educational force, the Metropolitan Motion Picture Council, 100 Washington Square East, New York, has set up a clearing house for information on all phases of the cinema. A monthly bulletin contains the latest information on educational and

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theatrical motion picture activities. It now has an active production committee, which is advising schools, social agencies, and other groups who wish to make pictures. Another committee of educators is classifying and evaluating educational and documentary films for various educational uses. Annual membership is \$2.00.

VISUAL AIDS IN SAFETY EDUCATION

The Research Division of the National Education Association has prepared a helpful booklet entitled "Visual Aids in Safety Education." Concise reviews of 156 motion pictures on safety are included. The source of each film is given, with the rental price, indication of grade level suitability, and a brief description of the content. Similar information is given concerning sound-slide films, film strips, lantern slides, and posters. The booklet contains the most complete source lists of visual aids for safety education that the writer has seen. Address the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, NW, Washington.

FREE AND INEXPENSIVE AIDS

Teachers who desire illustrative material which is obtainable free or at a low cost will be interested in Teaching Material Service, 205 East 42nd Street, New York. This organization serves as a central clearing house for such materials as posters, charts, pictures, and industrial samples. Registration with the bureau cost 50 cents. A booklet listing the sources of free material is sent to each registrant.

Other source lists for teachers interested in free and inexpensive materials are: Bruce Miller, *Sources of Free and Inexpensive Teaching Aids* (Bruce Miller, Principal, Ontario Junior High School, Ontario, California. 1939. \$1.00); American Library Association, *Visual Material: Aids for Publicity and Display* (American Library Association, 520 N. Michigan Avenue, Chicago. 1939. 50 cents); and Elizabeth Findly, *Free and Inexpensive Materials: An Annotated Bibliography of Bibliographies of Sources of Pamphlets and Other Teaching Aids Obtainable Free or at Small Cost* (University of Oregon, Eugene. Bulletin No. 9. 20 cents).

LANTERN SLIDE LECTURE

"The Conquest of the Colorado River, a new lantern slide lecture which tells the story

of Boulder, Parker, and Imperial, the three dams which control America's most dangerous river and put it to useful work, is now available for distribution. Requests for loan will be filled in the order they are received, and should be addressed to the Bureau of Reclamation, Washington. There is no charge except that the borrower is responsible for the express fees" (*School Life*, February, 1940, p. 155).

PICTORIAL CHARTS AND MAPS

The latest catalogue of Pictorial Statistics, Inc., 142 Lexington Avenue, New York, lists over 400 charts, maps, and symbol sheets available in black and white, size 8 1/4 x 11. Usable graphic material is available on such diverse topics as geography, population, national income, labor, social security, agriculture, natural resources, manufacturing, transportation, war, education, and history. The charts cost 20 cents each with reductions on quantity orders. Catalogue free.

"Each week all Minneapolis senior high school teachers receive an annotated list of maps, graphs, and charts which appear in current numbers of magazines and newspapers. Each item is classified by a topic familiar to the teacher. A recent mimeographed bulletin of two pages also includes cartoons, drawings, diagrams, tables, outlines, and pictures. The local administrative officers report that this service has been a helpful guide to busy teachers and school librarians" (*Curriculum Journal*, March, 1940, p. 103).

RADIO

A series of handbooks containing a permanent record of the facts dramatized on "The World Is Yours" program, are available from World Is Yours, Washington. These programs, sponsored by the Office of Education, bring to listeners information concerning the exhibits and scientific investigations of the Smithsonian Institute. "The World Is Yours" can be heard over NBC's Red Network, Sundays at 4:30 p.m., EST. Among the programs now available in pamphlet form the following should be of special interest to social studies teachers: "Indians Who Met Columbus," "Historical Gems," and "Cortez, the Conquistador." The cost is 10 cents a copy, and other titles will be provided.

Other programs, sponsored by the Office of Education are: "Democracy in Action," the documentary story of the government at work, broadcast Sundays at 2 p.m., EST, over CBS, and "Gallant American Women," the story of women in the making of America, heard Tuesdays at 2 p.m., EST over the NBC Blue Network.

Write to the Federal Radio Education Committee, Office of Education, Washington, for the brochure *The Federal Radio Education Committee, What It Is, What It Does, Its Policy*. Ask to be put on the mailing list for the F.R.E.C. Service Bulletin. It will keep you abreast of the happenings in the field of radio education.

"The Eleventh Institute for Education by Radio will be held at Ohio State University, April 29, 30, and May 1. . . . To this conference come broadcasters interested in education and educators interested in radio. Write to I. Keith Tyler, Ohio State University, for a program" (The News Letter, February, 1940).

CLASSROOM FILM REVIEW

America, Yesterday, Today, and Tomorrow. 1 reel (10 minutes). 16 or 35 mm, sound. Grade level suitability: high school, college. Sponsored by National Association of Manufacturers.

Distributed by The National Industrial Council, 14 West 49th Street, New York.

Free. Borrower pays transportation costs.

A résumé of America's industrial progress in the last hundred years is presented. Yesterday's industry is illustrated by the blacksmith who forged iron products by hand. The farmer is seen toiling laboriously in the fields, and the housewife of yesteryear is bowed down by the drudgery of her tasks. The coming of modern inventions is then briefly depicted. Early locomotives, automobiles, and airplanes enter the scene only to be greeted by scoffers who are sure they are impractical. As they prove their worth they take their place along with other machines which introduce new methods in industry, thereby giving rise to more opportunities, more jobs, increased services to the public and higher standards of living. The America of tomorrow is pictured by the promise of new type homes, television, air conditioning, and streamlined trains. Throughout the

film the narrator emphasizes the fact that individual initiative has been the reason for America's leadership in new inventions and living standards.

This film furnishes good material for a discussion of current economic problems. Has the machine caused unemployment? Is governmental regulation of industry desirable? Those and similar problems are posed by the film. The answers which are given are obviously intended to convince the audience that the "American way of life," as conceived by the National Association of Manufacturers, should proceed unhampered by forces which restrict individual initiative.

The National Industrial Council distributes three other films emphasizing the same point of view. *Men and Machines*, 1 reel, sound, available in 16 or 35 mm size, deals more fully with the problem "Has the machine created jobs?" *Frontiers of the Future*, is another 1 reel, sound film, 16 or 35 mm, which treats with the many new products being discovered and marketed each year. *America Marching On*, also 1 reel, sound, traces the growth of the corporate form of American business. Supplementary reading material will be furnished each pupil by the National Industrial Council.

HELPFUL ARTICLES

Elliott, Godfrey M., "Documentary Films for Social Studies," *Social Studies*, XXI: 76-8, February, 1940. "The documentary film is a faithful dramatization of the social implications contained in an immediate fact." It is of special value to late-adolescent and adult age groups, particularly in its ability to stimulate "a desirable social consciousness in its citizens." Two limitations are noted: the supply is limited, and many carry a foreign flavor which may be objectionable.

Mannion, Lawrence J., "Maps as an Activity in History Teaching," *Social Studies*, XXI: 78-81, February, 1940. Among values stressed are learning by doing, vitalization of notebook work, and correlation with geography. Suggestions are made for avoiding the stereotyped map form. Lists of map exercises are given.

Super, Donald E., "The Educational Value of Stamp Collecting," *The Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXXI:68-70, January, 1940. The results of an experiment to deter-

mine the "actual effect upon educational achievement, in related areas, of stamp-collecting," indicating that, at least on the high school level, collecting stamps does not result in increased knowledge of the social studies, though the hobby may have other values.

Yothers, Lee R., "Developing Concepts and Attitudes of Time and Change Through Organized Activities," *Science Education*, XXIV: 1-7, January, 1940. Intended prima-

rily for science teachers, but can be adapted to the social studies. Presents a geological time chart. Specimens of fossils, Indian relics, and ancient weapons can show how man has changed with environment. A simple erosion experiment is described. Illustrated.

This section of Notes and News will appear regularly. Readers are invited to send items of interest to Mr Hartley at New Jersey State Teachers College, Paterson.

Constitution of the National Council for the Social Studies

ARTICLE I

Name and Purposes

Section 1. This association shall be known as the National Council for the Social Studies, and is incorporated under the laws of the State of Illinois. The term "social studies" is used to include history, economics, sociology, civics, geography, and all modifications or combinations of subjects whose content as well as aim is predominantly social.

Section 2. The purpose of this association shall be to promote the study of the problems of teaching the social studies; to encourage research, experimentation, and investigation in these fields; to facilitate the professional and personal cooperation of its members; to hold public discussions and programs; to sponsor the publication of desirable articles, reports, and surveys; and to integrate the efforts of all those who have similar purposes.

ARTICLE II

Membership, Dues, Meetings, and Publications

Section 1. Any person in sympathy with the purposes of the National Council may become a member upon the payment of the annual dues.

Section 2. The annual dues shall be determined by the Board of Directors; but until otherwise ordered, the dues shall be three dollars a year. The payment of these dues entitles the member to a year's subscription to the

official magazine, to the Yearbook, and to such other publications as the Board of Directors shall determine. It also entitles him to attend all meetings, to vote, and to hold the offices to which he may be appointed or elected.

Section 3. The Board of Directors shall have the power to select or establish the official periodical for the National Council. Until otherwise ordered, *Social Education* shall be the official magazine of the National Council.

Section 4. The annual election and business meeting shall be held in connection with the major annual meeting, which until otherwise determined by the Board of Directors shall be held in November. Other business meetings may be called by the President after due notice has been given through the official magazine or on the programs of such meetings. Meetings of the Board of Directors may be called by the President upon written notice through the Executive Secretary's office.

Section 5. Meetings shall be held at the direction of the Board of Directors; and until otherwise ordered these shall be (1) the annual November meeting, and those held in connection with (2) the American Historical Association, (3) the American Association of School Administrators, and (4) the National Education Association. The National Council may also cooperate with other professional organizations in the sponsorship of joint meetings providing that such cooperation is approved by the Board of Directors.

ARTICLE III

Organization

Section 1. The elective officers of the National Council shall be chosen at the annual business meeting and shall include a President and two Vice-Presidents. They shall assume office on January 1 following their election and shall hold their respective offices for the term of one year. There shall also be a Secretary of the Corporation and an Executive Secretary and Treasurer appointed by the Board of Directors.

Section 2. The President shall have general charge of the affairs of the National Council, and by virtue of his office shall be Chairman of the Board of Directors. It shall be his obligation to promote in all suitable ways the best interests of the National Council. He shall be responsible for the programs of the meetings during his term of office, and has the power to appoint committees to carry on the work of the National Council.

Section 3. The First Vice-President and Second Vice-President shall assume such duties as the President or Board of Directors shall specify. If a vacancy occurs in the office of President the First Vice-President shall become President; if a vacancy occurs in the office of the First Vice-President, then the Second Vice-President shall become First Vice-President.

Section 4. The Secretary of the Corporation shall maintain an office in the State of Illinois, shall receive legal notices sent to or served upon the National Council in its capacity as a corporation, and shall make the annual report to the Secretary of State of Illinois as required by law.

Section 5. The Executive Secretary and Treasurer shall be responsible for carrying out

policies formulated by the Board of Directors, and as Treasurer shall be the financial agent of the National Council for the Social Studies. He shall make annual written reports to the Board of Directors. His salary, tenure, and specific responsibilities shall be determined by the Board.

Section 6. The Board of Directors shall consist of the President and two Vice-Presidents; the editor of the official magazine, six elected directors, two of whom shall be elected each year for a term of three years; and the five most recent past presidents. The Board shall have the power to appropriate funds from the treasury, to review the actions of officers and committees, to select the place for the annual meeting, and to exercise all powers not herein assigned to other officers or to the National Council.

Section 7. The status of the National Council as the Department of Social Studies of the National Education Association shall be continued unless otherwise determined by the Board of Directors.

ARTICLE IV

Amendments

This Constitution may be amended at the annual business meeting by a two-thirds majority of the members present, provided that notice of such proposed amendment shall have been given by the Board of Directors at a previous business meeting, and provided that the Board of Directors shall submit for consideration any proposal for which twenty-five members of the National Council for the Social Studies have petitioned. Notice of proposed amendments shall be given at least four months in advance of the meeting at which action is to be taken.

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BOOK REVIEWS

Statesmen of the Lost Cause: Jefferson Davis and His Cabinet. By Burton J. Hendrick. Boston: Little Brown, 1939. Pp. xvii, 452. \$3.75.

Some historical works are useful to the teacher of history because they marshal important facts and furnish interesting illustrative material for classroom use. Others are valuable because they bring together in easily accessible form some newer interpretations found in recent monographic studies and so keep the teacher in touch with changing points of view and challenge thought on controversial topics. This volume by Mr Hendrick belongs in both categories. Through what is essentially the biographical approach he has attempted to present some of the newer ideas concerning the history of the Confederate States and the reasons for the failure of that government. The book represents little fresh research and in addition to the official records draws largely from such earlier studies as those of Adams, Dodd, Owsley, Phillips, and Schwab.

The author includes revealing biographical sketches of the seventeen men who for longer or shorter periods served under President Davis in the Confederate Cabinet, with special attention to such figures as Benjamin, Mallory, and Seddon. He deals in considerable detail with the diplomatic struggle as carried on by Pickett, Mason, Slidell, Mann, and Yancey, and discusses at some length the influence of such leaders as Vice-President Stephens and Governor Brown of Georgia.

It is in the field of interpretation, however, that the volume proves most interesting. Professor Avery Craven, in a recent little volume entitled *The Repressible Conflict, 1830-1861*, has seriously questioned the thesis expressed in William H. Seward's famous phrase, "The irrepressible conflict." Now Mr Hendrick

brings interesting support to another new contention—the belief that the South was not necessarily predestined to defeat. He feels that the economic and military and diplomatic weaknesses of the South have been overemphasized, and he believes that the defeat of the Confederate States is to a larger degree to be explained by the weakness of their political leadership and the disrupting character of their states' rights doctrine.

He takes great pains to demonstrate that the South of the Civil War was not the South of Jefferson and Calhoun, but rather a nouveau riche, cotton South, less experienced and less able in the field of political leadership. He shows that Jefferson Davis was elevated to the presidency more or less by accident, while Robert Toombs, a much better choice, really enjoyed majority support. He emphasizes the fact that while it was the older South that for the most part furnished the military leaders who gave the Confederacy prestige and success, it was the cotton belt which provided the politicians who failed.

In illustration of the obstructionist particularism which played so important a part in wrecking Southern hopes, Mr Hendrick gives much space to the doings of Governor Vance of North Carolina and Governor Brown of Georgia. Though this part of the account includes no new material, the situation is described with such effectiveness as to make these chapters among the most valuable in the book. Mr Hendrick's support of his thesis is not entirely convincing, but it is at all times both interesting and provocative and brings together material of great value for stimulating discussion of issues that continue to command attention.

ALLEN R. FOLEY

Dartmouth College

Biography of Americans, 1658-1836: A Subject Bibliography. By Edward H. O'Neill. Philadelphia: Univ. of Pennsylvania Press, 1939. Pp. x, 465. \$4.00.

This useful contribution to bibliography seeks to include "every known biography" for each subject except that "only the important books" are listed for "particularly famous men," and to cover "every possible field of life." As the title indicates, the book lists, unless by inadvertence, include only biographies written by Americans. Autobiography, journals, and diaries are excluded, thus omitting such important material as the journals of Emerson and Thoreau, the huge diaries of J. Q. Adams, the letters and *Education* of Henry Adams. There are a few entries marked "biographical fiction" or "fictionized biography." In Part I, 409 pages, individual biography is listed alphabetically by names of the subjects. Part II, 55 pages with 707 numbered entries, is devoted to collected biography, arranged alphabetically by names of editors. Under each name (e.g., Washington, George) in Part I the biographies are listed alphabetically by authors, but with the titles inconveniently coming first. Arrangement by date of publication would be more useful and interesting for most users. There is no grouping of dictionaries and encyclopedias of biography, which appear under the editor's name in Part II, the whole of which must be scanned to locate the listed reference works in this classification. *Who's Who in America* and similar works are apparently not considered biographical nor, at the other extreme, are works primarily critical and interpretative, such as the studies of artists, composers and writers by James Huneker, *The Spirit of American Literature* by John Macy (with sixteen chapters on individual writers), Merle Curti's *The Social Ideas of American Educators*, or Percy H. Boynton's *Some Contemporary Americans*.

Title, author, place, and date of publication (but not publisher), and pagination are given for each item. Mr O'Neill states that he has "not attempted to give the date of the first edition" but "that of the edition available," a policy which leaves a lamentable uncertainty in using the book. Where the original date is given a reference to subsequent editions would often be illuminating, as, for example, with Parson Weems' life of Washington, whose orig-

inal date, 1800, appears, with a separate listing for the much enlarged edition of 1806, but with no indication that the latter introduced the famous story of the cherry tree (even the briefest annotations being taboo), or that scores of other editions have followed to the present day. Apparently some titles have been omitted because not accessible for inspection in the libraries used.

There is no subject index, nor are there even key words such as physician, painter, composer, or explorer in connection with the book titles. The misleading subtitle of the volume evidently refers merely to the arrangement of Part I by names of the subjects of individual biographies. Nor is there an author index that would guide us to a list of the works of Jared Sparks or J. S. C. Abbott or Claude Fues, for example, or tell us whether a certain author has published any biographical works. Such indexes would be highly useful either for reference use or for the study of American biographical writing. For the latter purpose some kind of chronological pattern, perhaps by decades or quarter-centuries, would be valuable, although Mr O'Neill may consider that his earlier book, *A History of American Biography, 1800-1935*, makes such a feature less important. The limitation of the work to American authors, though essential to the compiler's purpose, seriously restricts its value to most students, who will deplore the omission, in a list of biographies of Lincoln, of the life by Lord Charnwood, or of the studies of Stonewall Jackson by the English military historian, G. F. R. Henderson, John Freeman's *Melville*, Lauvrière's *Poe*, and other important biographies of foreign authorship.

Biographical studies in periodicals are sometimes important, or even the sole available account, and it is unfortunate to omit them. A comprehensive list would make a five-foot shelf of guides to trash, but in the scholarly magazines—*American Literature*, *The American Historical Review*, the state and regional historical journals, for example, there is much of real value which a guide to biographical writing should contain.

Biography by Americans is the product of years of painstaking labor and within its chosen limits will bear careful scrutiny and checking. There are occasional omissions not due to difficulty of access, for example, *Leading*

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American Men of Science, edited by David Starr Jordan (although Iles, *Leading American Inventors*, in the same series—"Leading Americans"—is listed), or in Part I, Merle Curti's *The Learned Blacksmith*, which may, however, have been disqualified by the amount of space given to Elihu Burritt's letters and journals. A few trifling slips, probably typographical, may be noted. But the work has been carefully done. The book is genuinely useful in spite of all the limitations enumerated. A really adequate bibliographical guide in this field would require the labors of a committee rather than of an individual. It is to be hoped that later editions will add at least such features as subject and author indexes and a quick guide to encyclopedias which need not disturb the present paging. Meanwhile we may be grateful for what has been provided by Mr O'Neill's patient and faithful work in preparing this useful volume.

J. MONTGOMERY GAMBRILL

Teachers College
Columbia University

The Disposition of Loyalist Estates in the Southern District of the State of New York. By Harry B. Yoshpe. New York: Columbia Univ. Press, 1939. Pp. 226. \$2.75.

Delving into the manuscript sources of colonial and revolutionary New York, Dr Yoshpe has been able to throw new light on the effect of the confiscation of the loyalist estates upon the redistribution of wealth during the revolutionary period. Those historians of the American Revolution, Flick, Van Tyne, Jameson, Nevins, and Spaulding, who emphasized the leveling influence of the Revolution, maintained that the sale of the Tory lands led to a growth of land ownership among the lower classes. In this volume evidence is presented which tends to prove that in the counties of New York, Kings, Queens, Suffolk, Richmond, and Westchester, where the most valuable Tory estates were located, more of these lands "fell to wealthy and influential merchants, landowners, army contractors, Revolutionary leaders and speculators, many already possessed of substantial land holdings." The wealthy classes, interested in buying up confiscated estates for speculation, paid for these properties in part with depreciated state certificates which had come into their hands after

issuance to the troops in lieu of their claims to pay.

Since the Commissioners of Forfeitures could sell the seized lands by private contract, and after 1786 required that the entire purchase price be paid within four months of the sale, the lower classes of yeomen, artisans, and landless laborers could not compete with the moneyed classes. The wealthy speculators, however, by dividing their purchases into city lots and small farms and then selling to small purchasers in the early nineteenth century, did contribute somewhat towards democratizing land ownership, but not until they had reaped their profits.

Though Dr Yoshpe's book shows the results of thorough research, his work would be more valuable if he had been able to give conclusive statistics comparing the amounts of lands obtained by the upper and lower classes as he defined them. Moreover he did not pursue his investigations to the point where he would have been able to indicate the profits made by these speculators through subsequent sales. Dr Yoshpe's dissertation is, notwithstanding, a worthwhile contribution to the social history of the American Revolution.

IRVING J. LEVINE

Manual Training High School
Brooklyn, New York

The Constitutional History of the United States, 1826-1876. By Homer Carey Hockett. New York: Macmillan, 1939. Pp. xii, 405. \$3.00.

This is the second volume of Professor Hockett's projected three-volume survey of American constitutional history, the first volume of which was reviewed in these columns in November, 1939. This volume continues the high standards of scholarship and clarity which distinguished the first.

To the high school teacher of history the chief merit of the book will be found in its illuminating treatment of topics which are only too often treated obscurely or inadequately in the texts and general histories likely to be in the library of the average high school. Examples are the well balanced discussion of the influence of the western states on the development of democratic control of government, both state and federal (pp. 77-81); a brief but lucid tracing of the origins of popular

sovereignty (pp. 212-215); an unusually clear presentation of the often garbled Dred Scott case (pp. 232-250); and chapter xvii, on the problems of reconstruction, which by omitting cluttering details makes the contending forces stand out sharply defined (pp. 325-346).

Two figures who have received but scant courtesy from most writers obtain a fair hearing in this book. Taney's work as Chief Justice is recognized as fairly entitling him "to rank beside his illustrious predecessor in our national annals" (p. 96). President Buchanan's course during the winter of 1860-1861 receives an indirect endorsement when the author remarks "If Lincoln had been in Buchanan's place during the winter of 1860-1861 it seems altogether likely that he would have pursued an almost identical policy" (p. 267).

A few errors or inadequacies of statement were noted. The propositions presented to the voters of Kansas by the vote on the Lecompton Constitution of 1857 are not stated clearly (p. 253). The Reconstruction Act of March 2, 1867, was not passed over Johnson's veto by the Congress elected in 1866, since that body (the Fortieth Congress) did not come into existence until March 4, 1867 (p. 342).

Such slips, surprisingly few in number in a book so filled with a wealth of data, detract little from its value to teachers of American history. As in the case of the first volume it should be noted that this work is distinctly one for mature readers, and it is probable that few high school students would be able to get much from it.

With the high standard of scholarship shown in the first two volumes, Professor Hockett's third volume will be awaited impatiently.

CHARLES H. COLEMAN

Eastern Illinois State Teachers College
Charleston

Commonwealth or Anarchy? A Survey of Projects of Peace from the Sixteenth to the Twentieth Century. By Sir John A. R. Marriott. New York: Columbia Univ. Press, 1939. Pp. 227. \$2.00.

This book first appeared in England in 1937. The subject with which it is concerned is of obvious timeliness—one guards himself, in the present discouraging world crisis—against adding timelessness. The author's primary

aim, he tells us, is to set forth the more important projects designed, in the past four centuries, to prevent international war. The essays in which he sketches the Great Design of Henry IV, the projects of Emeric Crucé, Hugo Grotius, the Abbé de Saint-Pierre, William Penn, Rousseau, Kant, and Bentham are probably the best brief expositions in English. For a thorough understanding one will still have to turn to the more exhaustive accounts in ter Meulen's, *Der Gedanke Der Internationalen Organisation* and Lange's *L'Histoire de la Doctrine Pacifique*. These essays of Sir John are followed by succinct accounts of the Holy Alliance, the Concert of Europe, the free trade school, of the growth of nationalism, imperialism and armaments, of the Hague conferences, the League of Nations, and the post-war world. For this part of the volume he draws from his numerous writings in the field of modern history, and succeeds somewhat better than in the earlier part of the volume in providing an appropriate historical background for the discussion of specific plans for the prevention of war.

Sir John A. R. Marriott implies that the facts presented will enable the reader to conclude whether these peace projects failed as a result of defective machinery or in consequence of the unregenerate nature of man. It is doubtful, however, whether many readers will in fact find adequate data in these pages for answering such questions. They surely will not find data drawn from the fields of economics, sociology, psychology, and cultural anthropology—data pertinent to the questions.

The author of these well written essays argues that the British Empire is the most effective instrument ever devised for peace on earth (p. 142). If this is true today—and of that many have serious doubts—it has certainly not been true at all stages in the development of the British Empire. Sir John further writes that "the real problem for the world is whether the principle which holds together the British Empire can not, *mutatis mutandis*, be extended to ever-widening circles; or, at the least, whether the British Empire may not afford a model for similar formations" (p. 219). (Americans have for a hundred and fifty years argued similarly in regard to their own federal experiment.) Many who agree with him in believing that we shall ultimately have to have

something like a commonwealth of nations will question not only the argument from the analogy of the British Empire, but the underlying assumption in these engaging pages that the problem of peace and war can be separated from basic factors—cultural, psychological and economic—of which Sir John seems to be largely unaware.

MERLE CURTI

Teachers College
Columbia University

Democracy Readers. New York: Macmillan, 1940.

School Friends (primer). By Lois G. Nemec. Pp. vii, 80. 72c.

Let's Take Turns (first reader). By Lois G. Nemec. Pp. vii, 118. 72c.

Enjoying Our Land (second reader). By Maybell G. Bush. Pp. ix, 181. 84c.

Your Land and Mine (third reader). By Helen M. Brindl. Pp. x, 246. 92c.

The Democracy Readers present an instructional program in democracy for reading or social studies classes in the elementary school. The educational purposes of the series are those which have been long recognized as extremely important—but exceedingly difficult to attain. As extracted from the prefaces of the books these purposes briefly are: "to emphasize with children in a constructive fashion the characteristics of democracy which belong to our heritage and which, if not emphasized, may be accepted with indifference and treated with negligence"; to "teach our children to love and respect the democratic rights which our forebears have won"; and to "develop in children an active determination to protect and continue to perfect our ways of expressing these democratic ideals."

There can be no real doubt that an educational program that can realize these purposes is greatly needed now. Certainly there have been few periods in American life when a well-grounded knowledge of America's greatness and a resolute faith in democracy were needed more than in this one. Currently emphatic criticisms of governmental procedures, and democratic principles can be heard on every hand. Much of this criticism, mild or vitriolic, is motivated no doubt by a genuine desire to improve American life, but some of it is obviously aimed at affecting fundamental changes

in the structure of American society and at supplanting certain recognized democratic procedures by those that are much less democratic. Regardless, however, of the purposes for which this criticism is made, the individual's faith in the democratic principles must without doubt remain unbroken in this cross fire of criticism.

The development and maintenance of this faith, the authors of this series recognize, is "educational statesmanship." The value of an educational program, however, is not to be finally judged by its objectives, regardless of the brilliance with which they may be conceived. The content of the program and the learning activities it employs provide a better basis for evaluation.

The content of this series represents an innovation in learning materials for the elementary school. The content deals with the essential characteristics and principles of democracy as they are revealed in the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution of the United States, the Bill of Rights, and other literature concerned with democracy.

Obviously, many of the concepts and understandings relative to the nature and principles of democracy are both complex and abstract. Little, therefore, can be done in the primary grades in teaching the principles of democracy other than providing opportunities for understanding and developing basic traits of character that are essential for democratic living. The first two books in the series are devoted almost exclusively to this purpose.

The first book in the series, *School Friends*, is a primer. The type is 18-point. This book contains eighty pages and includes six units. The first unit, "We Help," provides content for developing the concepts and habits of cooperativeness in the home. Opportunities are also provided for developing thoughtfulness

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of others, kindness, helpfulness, and respect for the rights of others. The second unit, "We Play," provides a basis for developing good habits of play and the attitude of fair play. Furthermore, this unit is adapted to the teaching of a willingness to share one's playthings with others. "We Go To School," the third unit, can be used to orient the pupil in school life. Habits of cleanliness, punctuality, and willingness to work at one's tasks can be strengthened with this content. Kindness to one's classmates, courtesy to children and adults other than members of one's own family are additional traits and habits that may be developed with the learning material of this unit. Unit four, "We Work At School," may be used to create the desire to do good work in school and to show boys and girls how to become good workers in school. The fifth unit, "We Play At School," furnishes materials for teaching pupils to play group games. Particularly, an understanding of the fun to be derived through play, fairness in play, and willingness to await one's turn in play may be taught through the use of this content. Unit six, "We Think of Others," encourages pupils to be considerate of others and to show this attitude through being friendly, helpful, kind, and courteous at home and in school.

This book contains 127 illustrations that effectively supplement the content. A half dozen of these are full page in size. These are brilliantly colored. The author of this volume is Lois G. Nemec, a state supervisor of elementary schools at Madison, Wisconsin. The drawings were made by Priscilla Pointer.

The second book of the series, *Let's Take Turns*, also by Lois G. Nemec, is a first reader. It too contains six units. This book, larger than the preceding one, contains 118 pages. Unit one, "Let Me Help," presents material for the further development of cooperativeness in work and play. The willingness to work before playing, to rely upon self, and to save for the future are other virtues stimulated by this unit. "Let's Work Together," the second unit, encourages industriousness and orients the pupil in an understanding of rights of private property and develops respect for private property. Unit three, "Let's Talk Things Over," acquaints the pupil with free discussion as a means of settling conflicts. It also encourages respect for the rule of the majority

and the rights and views of the minority. "Let's Take Turns," unit four, gives further encouragement to the attitudes of fairness and cooperativeness in play. Also, it introduces pupils to the simpler principles of self rule in school. Unit five, "Let's Give Him Some," provides content for further strengthening the traits of respect for others, tolerance, kindness, and cooperativeness. It provides also for the development of one type of honesty.

The last unit in the book, "Let's Be Friends," offers additional content for the further development of friendliness, kindness, tolerance, and respect for others. It also introduces the pupil to the right of religious freedom and the right to hold personal opinions. It re-emphasizes private property rights, and the rights of free discussion. This book contains eighty-one illustrations. The pictures were drawn by Kate Seredy.

The second and third readers continue to use some content which is familiar to the pupils and which is particularly useful for developing basic traits of character that are essential in democratic life. Other parts of the content, however, present ideas which are basically new to young pupils. Appropriately this new content provides a foundation of knowledge which is required to enable the pupil to construct a background for understanding and appreciating the simpler, though still relatively complex, principles and characteristics of democracy.

The second reader, *Enjoying Our Land*, contains 180 pages and 122 illustrations. The type is 16-point. The book is divided into three large units and nineteen chapters. "Work and Play at Home," the first unit, contains seven chapters. The first two chapters develop principles regarding private property with the activities and content related to two children's garden, and the principles of common ownership through content dealing with public recreation grounds. Respect for the will of the majority, respect for minority rights, respect for constituted authority, and respect for the individual are also emphasized in this unit through the use of appropriate stories and activities. "Vacation Days Away from Home," the second unit, presents eleven chapters of travel. Mountains, rivers, lakes, cities, and large geographic regions are included in the places "visited." Through the use of this content, pupils may become acquainted with some

of the problems of conservation, the principle of economic interdependence, the value of natural resources, as part of the work of the government in conservation and protection, and a few of the individual citizen's responsibilities to his country. The third unit, "Vacation Days at Home," has one chapter. This content emphasizes the security of the home and organizes the experiences that the family had on the previously described travels. This content can help the pupil to better understand the people and material resources of the nation.

The author of the third reader is Maybell G. Bush, also a state supervisor of elementary schools at Madison, Wisconsin. Pictures were drawn by Arthur Jameson.

The third reader, *Your Land and Mine*, contains 243 pages and 110 illustrations. The book is divided into eight large units or chapters. The content of the book is organized around the experiences of two children and their parents. In following these characters through the book, the reader may learn much about how democracy became established in this country. The reader may also learn through

conversations between these children and their parents how social, cultural, and industrial progress is achieved.

The first chapter, "Good Workers Help Our Country," presents the father in the family as a working man who appreciates America as a land of opportunity for people who work. Through further conversation, the founding of the home, religious freedom, political freedom, freedom of speech, universal education, and the right to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness are developed as concepts and principles of reality in America. Respect for the right of private property, and the willingness to work and play together are further strengthened. The second unit, "The American Flag," is devoted to the development of love and respect for the national flag. The origin of the flag as a symbol of liberty is recounted. Particular emphasis is given to the responsibilities that every American has—to help his country and preserve its liberties. Unit three, "Americans Have Freedom of Religion," points out the values of religious freedom and portrays the struggles that were required to attain this freedom. "Schools in a

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Democracy," the fourth unit, contrasts early and modern schools in America. The idea that democracy implies self rule, and that self rule requires an educated citizenry is amply developed. The development of the point of view that every individual should participate in democratic government, and that every individual should educate himself for effective participation in governmental affairs places the responsibility of becoming educated squarely upon the individual citizen. Unit five, "Making a Club at School," provides an opportunity for pupils to receive some practice in self-government. Respect for majority rule, and the rights of the minority are further emphasized. Units six, seven, and eight deal mainly with great achievements of citizens who have lived in a democracy. "Stories About Good Americans," the sixth unit, presents biographical sketches of Martha and George Washington, Elias Howe, Thomas A. Edison, Jane Addams, and James Lawrence. "Stories About Rich America," the seventh unit, deals with the development of our rich stores of iron, coal, oil, and lumber, and with the growth of farming, fishing, and transportation in our country. The last unit, "American Music, Art, Poems, and Stories," presents life sketches of eight American artists, composers, and writers. Included in these groups are Gilbert Stuart, Stephen Foster, John Greenleaf Whittier, Samuel Francis Smith, and Vachel Lindsay. Some of the productions of these famous Americans are included in this unit. These three units contain material that may be used to encourage the wise use of leisure time, and to develop a willingness to respect and conserve our natural and cultural resources. Helen M. Brindl, principal of Avondal School, Chicago, is the author of the third. The illustrations were drawn by Q. B. Hazelton.

Thus far this review has presented the Democracy Readers as learning material for a program in social studies. This series is not adapted solely and exclusively to this single use, however. These books could be used equally as well as a reading program. The vocabulary of the four books has been checked, according to the publisher, against the Thorndike Word List with the following results: of the 128 different words used in the primer, all but eleven of these fall in the first 500 words of Thorndike's list. All but forty-three of the

237 different words used in the first reader fall in the first 500 words of Thorndike's Work List. Of the 493 different words used in the second reader all but twenty-six are found in Thorndike's first 1000 words, and all of the 911 different words used in the third reader except 178 are found in Thorndike's first 1500 words.

At the end of each unit the authors have suggested a list of "Things to Do." These lists suggest ways to check pupil comprehension of materials read, ways to correlate reading with other school subjects, ways to provide enrichment of materials included in the unit, and ways to make accommodations for individual differences among pupils in ability to learn. These lists also contain suggestions for carrying out various learning activities.

Toward Freedom (fourth reader). By Ruth Mills Robinson. Pp. ix, 278. 96c.

Pioneering in Democracy (fifth reader). By Edna Morgan. Pp. xvi, 336. \$1.00.

The Way of Democracy (sixth reader). By Allen Y. King and Ida Dennis. Pp. xiii, 400. \$1.32.

Toward Freedom, the fourth reader of the Democracy Readers series, contains 278 pages. This book presents a continuous story of an American family, the Dengates. When the story opens, the family had been living in Germany nearly a decade. One of the two Dengate children had been born in Germany. The first chapter narrates significant experiences the family has while living under the rule of a dictator. The father in the family is a correspondent of an American newspaper. The children are pupils in a German school. The experiences of the father and the experiences of the children reflect the restrictions imposed in Germany today upon adults and children. These restrictions are contrasted sharply with the liberties that people enjoy in a democracy.

In the early stages of the story the Dengates are recalled to the United States. On the homeward voyage, these Americans, by a fortuitous coincidence, meet a refugee family from Germany who are on their way to make their home in the United States. The remainder of the story tells how the refugee family became established in America and how they learned to adjust themselves to the principles and ideals of a democracy. As the reader follows the story,

he has the opportunity to become aware of many rights Americans enjoy at home, in school, and in the nation. He may learn, too, how certain of these rights were originally secured. The right of trial by jury, the right of free education, the right of free opportunity and the right to assemble peaceably and to speak freely, are some of them. Furthermore, the reader may become acquainted with such essential documents as the Declaration of Independence, and the Constitution of the United States.

The last chapter of the book presents Washington, D. C. as the shrine of America's national democracy. *Toward Freedom* was written by Ruth Mills Robinson, principal of Hough Curriculum Center, Cleveland. The pictures were drawn by Harve Stein.

Pioneering in a Democracy, the fifth reader, contains 336 pages. This book is divided into ten units. Each unit deals with one or more phases of the development of democracy. Characteristic titles of the ten units are: Freedom of Religion, A Struggle for Independence, Builders of America, Using What We Have Without Waste, School in a Democracy, and

Qualities Found in Great Americans. Organized as subtopics under these ten major units are seventy-five individual selections. Among these are such representative titles as, Early Religion in Massachusetts, King George III Quarrels with the Colonies, The Second Continental Congress, The Declaration of Independence, George Washington, George Rogers Clark, Early Days in America, Importance of Conservation of Natural Resources, Voters Must be Educated, New York City, and Our Western Monuments.

These various phases of democracy are developed by stories and biographical sketches. Edna Morgan, principal of the Paul Revere Curriculum Center, Cleveland, is the author of this reader. The illustrations were made by Lawrence T. Dressor.

The sixth reader, *The Way of Democracy*, contains 400 pages. It was written by Allen Y. King, supervisor of social studies, Cleveland, and Ida Dennis, radio teacher of social studies, Cleveland. It was illustrated by E. P. Cause. This book is divided into eleven large units and four individual selections. It serves as a culminating volume of the whole series. That

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The second part of the book is called "The Southern Picture." And it is a full picture of the Region, realistic yet sympathetic, well stocked with suggestions for intelligent attack upon the problems of the South. The picture includes rich descriptions of the South's *natural resources*, and *human resources* as well.

Three other regional editions of AMERICAN DEMOCRACY ANEW are planned. There will be separate editions for the Northeast, the Middle West, and the Pacific Coast. Part One will be common to all editions, but Part Two will in each edition deal with the problems of its Region.

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is, many of the themes developed in earlier books are amplified and expanded in this one to appeal to the more mature pupils. The first two units, *Foundation of Our Liberties*, and *Rule by the Majority* provide a background for understanding the origin of democracy. The following units, except the last one, give detailed development and application of the democratic principles set forth in the first two units. The last unit in the book deals with the individual citizen's responsibilities for further perfecting democracy and for preserving it for future generations. Among those units which give detailed development to various democratic principles are to be found such titles as *Freedom to Seek the Truth*, *Freedom of Speech*, *Freedom of the Press*, *Settlement of Disputes by Peaceful Means*, *Trial by Jury*, and *Freedom of Opportunity*. The last unit bears the title, *Building Democracy and Citizenship*. Among the individual selections contained within this reader are such titles as *A New Day Down at Runnymede*, *Democracy at Work*, *Justice in America*, *Pioneering in the Field of Science*, *Our Government and Theirs*, and *Men of Tomorrow*.

As readers, these intermediate grade books make provisions for correlations with history, citizenship, geography, economics, English, science, and art. At the end of each book is an extensive glossary and a well organized index. Every item in the index appears as a main heading—there are no sub-heads. The nineteen pages immediately preceding the glossary in the fourth reader are given over to eleven lists of suggested activities—one list for each chapter in the book. The fifth and sixth readers contain similar lists of suggested activities. In these books, however, the lists appear at the end of each unit or chapter. In general these lists contain suggestions for checking comprehension in reading, and for doing further reading, for making correlations with other school subjects, and for presenting dramatizations. The lists also include suggested topics for discussion, and topics for making oral and written reports. Also contained in these lists are suggestions for organizing clubs in schools, and for directing the activities of such organizations.

F. L. HAMBRICK

Colorado State College of Education
Greeley

Social Life and Personality. By Emory S. Bogardus and Robert H. Lewis. New York: Silver Burdett, 1938. Pp. ix, 581. \$1.80.

Rarely is the unit and problem approach to vital aspects of human living so well utilized as in this volume. Intended as a personal sociology textbook for secondary school use, it capitalizes upon the adolescent's natural interest in discovering functional answers to his queries concerning his own personality, his personal adjustment problems, and his future position as a mature member of the community.

Throughout the volume the study of personality, the family, play and recreation, education, work, the community, religion, art, social control, and social adjustment is vitalized by scores of challenging problem headings such as these: *What Is a Magnetic Personality?* *What Are the Values of Monogamy?* *Why Is the Automobile a Social Problem?* *Who Should Go to College?* *What Can We Do to Relieve Poverty?* *How Can You Study Your Local Community?* *What Are the Social Creeds of the Churches?* *How Do Motion Pictures Express Social Ideas?* *What Is Propaganda?* *What Is a Democratic Social Life?*

Each unit contains a list of problems to be solved, a preview, brief textual consideration of the problems chosen, individual and group activities (including reading tests and library assignments), new vocabulary list, thought questions, an illustrative case study, and reading lists of both reference and recreational books. Particularly commendable are the many exceptionally effective photographic and pictographic illustrations. As a genuinely functional textbook for personalized social studies, this volume is decidedly superior.

EDWARD G. OLSEN

Colgate University

Our Democracy. By Edwin C. Broome, Edwin W. Adams, and Hilda Scott. New York: Macmillan, 1939. Pp. x, 466. \$1.32.

The authors of this community civics textbook, one an attorney at law and lecturer at Temple University and the other associate superintendent of schools in Philadelphia, are here doing their part to "cooperate in a nationwide pro-American campaign to 'sell' the United States to its own people" (p. 419).

The fear of communism and fascism throws its threatening shadow over page four and finally appears as the "Enemy Within" in Chapter xxx.

It may be that the authors in their eagerness to sell democracy seem sometimes to get in the way of democracy's selling itself. This is not a quarrel with the objective of the text but rather an expression of doubt concerning the salesmanship technique. To the teacher sympathetic to such a method *Our Democracy* may be of real value.

Two chapters on the origin and development of democracy from its British antecedents is followed with the usual "community civics," describing the American citizen at home, at school, at play, at work. Throughout these and the succeeding sections on health (three chapters), prevention of accidents, care of the unfortunate, government protection, community planning, transportation, and agriculture, there runs the commendable motif of co-operation.

However the application of the idea of co-operation too often, as has so long been the case in civics texts, runs into details in which

the actual significance of a resourceful and worthwhile citizenship may be lost. Thus, the young student is adjured to dial the telephone accurately, have his fare ready when he enters a bus, and stamp his letters in the upper right hand corner (pp. 259-60). Again, let it be said, that the authors of *Our Democracy* are following a traditional, albeit unfortunate, trail.

Eleven more chapters are devoted to the workings of government, beginning with the Constitution and ending with taxation. A lack of realism may be charged by some for the reason that citizen participation in political parties is not especially encouraged and political machines are but darkly referred to.

A few explanatory charts (there is only one on page 328) might have been of assistance to the student, and a break in the seriousness of the commentary would have been in order.

The authors deserve especial commendation for their emphasis on civic ideals and character development. After each chapter they have inserted one or two questions designed to bring about proper social attitudes. The book is marked, too, by several unusual features, including chapters on "Laws Everyone Should

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Know," and a summary of parliamentary procedure in the appendix. Only two errors of fact were noted by the reviewer: there are 175,000,000 acres in our national forests instead of 125,000,000 (p. 84); and in accordance with the declaration of the Owen-Glass Act of 1913, national banks, since 1935, are no longer able to issue national bank notes (p. 411).

This is a carefully done work in language which seldom gets away from the vocabulary of the adolescent.

ROBERT RIENOW

New York State College for Teachers
Albany

The Role of Educators in Utilizing Regional Resources. By Paul R. Hanna, Harold C. Hand, et al. New York: Progressive Education Association, 1939. Pp. 429.

This bulky mimeographed volume, of which fully one half is bibliography, bears the title "A Preliminary Report," and the further explanatory title: "Annotations of Selected Basic Printed Materials Useful in Secondary Schools and Colleges in Studying the Problems of Regional Planning." It was prepared specifically for use in the workshops of the Progressive Education Association during the summer of 1939. It was a high pressure job with little time allowed for careful revision. In the preface the authors call their production "a preliminary skeleton of a study that educators in cooperation with regional scientists need to spend years in perfecting."

The book is a first step in the direction of enlisting the interest of educators in the results of painstaking scientific research which has been carried on these last years under the sponsorship of various regional planning commissions. Far the greater part of these research studies have been in the form of reports to the planning boards and have as yet received little attention from the general public. Their intrinsic value, too, has been lost for the average citizen because of their technical nature, although the information they contain vitally concerns the welfare of every American in whatever "region" he resides.

The authors have a definite thesis in mind: that in scientific planning for the use of resources, physical and human, artificial state boundaries must yield to the natural boundaries of regions as new "units of human as-

sociation." The first part of the book is concerned with the methods by which such regions can be delimited. The second, third, and fourth sections discuss the physical and cultural characteristics of regions and the importance of achieving in each a balance between physical and human resources and needs. Each of the eight regions into which the nation is divided is then studied in some detail as a planning region, with a voluminous if not annotated bibliography for each. The final section points out that regions can not be self-sufficient any more than smaller units can, and also shows the need for cooperation on a national scale.

The fact that the book was prepared hastily to meet an emergency need is evident and explains some of its faults—needless repetition of some points and inadequate presentation of others. But although the temporary nature of the publication must be kept in mind, its importance should not be overlooked. Whether or not the regional boundaries drawn by the authors are accepted as final, some such development of the idea of regionalism as opposed to that of artificial state divisions is sadly needed as fundamental to the reconstruction of our economic, social, and cultural life. Second, the attempt to lift from their hiding places in record rooms and files the reports of scientific and technical agencies, and to put them into such form that all intelligent citizens may have the benefit of their findings, is perhaps of greater service still. Finally, the plan to use this material to orient future learning is fraught with significance for American life. If coming generations are to avoid the mistakes of the past, some such orientation is essential. This book, with the suggestions it contains for making recent findings operative, may shorten the period of fumbling and give our future efforts clearer direction.

RUTH WEST

Lewis and Clark High School
Spokane, Washington

Economics for Consumers. By Leland J. Gordon. New York: American Book, 1939. Pp. x, 638.

Most economics books seem to forget the importance of the consumer, but in *Economics for Consumers* Mr Gordon takes up where most authors in this area stop. Throughout

the entire book economics is approached from the consumer viewpoint with the result that fresh light is thrown on problems such as advertising, freedom of choice, price appeal, consumers' cooperatives, and the role of the government. Although many controversial issues are raised, Mr Gordon is careful to treat all of them with objectivity.

Consumer education in the schools is growing in importance. The Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association has urged that instruction on consumer problems become part of the curriculum. In an attempt to meet this need, an Institute for Consumer Education has been established at Stephens College. Many schools have added separate courses on consumer education, while others are teaching about consumer problems in home economics, social studies, and economics. Some educators believe that the aim of consumer education should be to make all students technical experts in the selection of goods, thread count, and quality analysis. Another group of teachers hold that consumer education should make pupils aware of the problems and issues which face consumers by

pointing out to them agencies which are working for or against their best interests. It is then assumed that the consumer will avail himself of the services of his friends and be wary of those who have ulterior motives. Mr Gordon takes this second point of view. Recognizing that consumer education is controversial, he presents the facts with clarity and fairness, yet he points out to the consumer the actions which would be to his best advantage.

While *Economics for Consumers* was no doubt written for college classes, it can be used on the secondary school level as a reference book on consumer problems. The problems and projects listed at the end of each chapter are suggestive and practical in most instances for high school classes.

C. MAURICE WIETING

Teachers College
Columbia University

PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

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May we suggest — —

Ninth Yearbook (1938) *The Utilization of Community Resources in Social Studies*

Ruth West, Editor Paper edition, \$2.00, cloth, \$2.30

Bulletin No. 6 (revised edition; ready in May) *Selected Test Items in American History*

by H. R. Anderson, E. F. Lindquist, and H. D. Berg \$.75

Bulletin No. 13 (1939) *Selected Items in American Government*

by H. R. Anderson and E. F. Lindquist \$.50

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